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SCOTTISH UNION FIRE AND LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY, 37, Cornhill, London.

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FIRE INSURANCES of every description may be effected with this Corporation on the most liberal terms.

LIFE DEPARTMENT.
Parties opening policies before the 1st of August next, will secure the advantage of one year's additional bonus, which has hitherto averaged 2 per cent. per annum on the sums insured. 37, Cornhill, London. F. G. SMITH, Sec.

THE YORKSHIRE FIRE AND LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY. Established at York, 1824, and Empowered by Act of Parliament. CAPITAL, 500,000.
The attention of the public is directed to the terms of this Company for LIFE INSURANCES, and to the distinction which is made between MALE and FEMALE LIVES.

Extract from the Table of Premiums for Insuring 100l.

A MALE. A FEMALE.				A MALE. A FEMALE.			
Age next birth-day.	Whole Life Premiums.	Age next birth-day.	Whole Life Premiums.	Age next birth-day.	Whole Life Premiums.	Age next birth-day.	Whole Life Premiums.
10	£1 7 6	£1 5 4	40	£3 11 6	£3 3 2	50	£4 1 9
13	1 9 3	1 7 0	50	4 1 9	3 13 3	53	4 1 9
16	1 11 3	1 9 0	53	4 1 9	4 2 6	56	4 1 9
19	1 14 6	1 11 6	56	5 4 0	4 14 0	59	5 4 0
22	1 17 0	1 13 6	59	6 6 0	5 12 6	62	6 6 0
25	2 0 3	1 16 2	62	7 4 0	6 9 6	65	7 4 0
28	2 3 0	1 19 9	65	8 4 0	7 10 8	68	8 4 0
31	2 6 0	2 1 0	68	9 4 0	8 12 0	71	9 4 0
34	2 9 0	2 3 6	71	10 4 0	9 1 6	74	10 4 0
37	3 2 0	2 6 0	74	11 4 0	10 2 4	77	11 4 0
40	3 5 0	2 9 0	77	12 4 0	11 3 6	80	12 4 0
43	3 8 0	3 2 0	80	13 4 0	12 4 0	83	13 4 0

Prospectuses with the rates of premium for the intermediate ages, and every information, may be had at the Head Office in York, or any of the Agents.

W. L. NEWMAN, Actuary and Secretary, York.
London Agent for the Department.
Mr. EDWARD HENWOOD, 46, Watling-street, City.

UNITED KINGDOM LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY. Temporary Offices, during the alterations, No. 25, Regent-street, Waterloo-place, London.

Established by Act of Parliament in 1813.
Division of Profits among the Assured.

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Charles Downes, Esq., Resident.

Surgeon.—F. Hale Thomson, Esq., 48, Berners-street.
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The bonus added to Policies from March, 1841, to the 31st December, 1840, is as follows:—

Sum Assured.	Time Assured.	Sum added to Policy.
£5000	6 Years or 10 Months	£263 6 8
5000	6 Years	600 0 0
5000	3 Years	400 0 0
5000	3 Years	200 0 0

The premiums, nevertheless, are on the most moderate scale, and only one-half need be paid for the first five years, where the Insurance is for life.

Every information will be afforded on application to the Resident Directors, Edward Boyd, Esq. and E. Lennox Boyd, Esq. of No. 25, Regent-street, Waterloo-place, London.

ARGUS LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY,
39, Throgmorton-street, Bank.

Empowered by special Act of Parliament, 5 & 6 Will. IV. c. 78.
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Low Rates of Premium.
In addition to the subscribed Capital of 200,000l. the assured have the security of the Company's Income of nearly 60,000l. per annum, yearly increasing, and an accumulation Assurance Fund invested in Government and other available Securities, of considerably larger amount than the estimated liabilities of the Company.

The Rates of Premium are reduced to the lowest scale compatible with the safety of the Assured and the stability of the Company, thereby, in effect, giving to every policy-holder an immediate and certain bonus without risk in lieu of the deferred and frequently delusive prospect of a periodical division of profits.

Annual Premium to Assure £100.

Age.	For One Year.	For Seven Years.	Whole Term.
20	17 8	20 19 1	23 11 0
30	1 1 8	1 2 7	2 0 7
40	1 5 0	1 6 9	2 14 10
50	1 11 0	1 19 10	4 0 11
60	3 2 4	3 17 0	6 0 10

One-third of whole-term Premiums may remain unpaid at 5 per cent. comp. int. a debt upon the Policy for life, or may be paid off at any time without notice.

In Assurance for advances of money, as security for debts, or as a provision for a family, when the least present outlay is desirable, the varied and comprehensive Tables of the Argus Office will be found to be particularly favourable to the assured.

A Board of Directors, with the Medical Officers, attend daily, at a quarter before 2 o'clock.

EDWARD BATES, Resident Director.

VICTORIA LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY,

No. 18, KING WILLIAM-STREET, CITY.
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THE ASSURANCE OF ASSURERS is particularly directed to the detailed Prospectuses of this Company. Assurances can be effected on a profit or non-profit scale, and for short periods at a very moderate rate. When on the life of another, the Policy may be rendered secure, notwithstanding the life assured may go out of the limits of Europe without the necessary permission of the Directors having been previously obtained: this plan makes an absolute security.

An ample guarantee for the first five years allowed on Policies effected for the whole term of life.

Advances are made to Assurers on real or undoubted personal security, for terms of years, repayable by instalments.

WILLIAM RATRAY, Actuary and Secretary.

GREAT BRITAIN MUTUAL LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY, 14, Waterloo-place, Pall Mall, London.

William Morley, Esq., Deputy Chairman.
Great Advantages offered to Policy-holders by this Institution. A large and immediate accession of Assurances by the transfer of the Policies of the "Achilles British and Foreign Life Assurance Association."

PROFITS.—The whole of the Profits divided ANNUALLY among the Members, after payment of five Annual Premiums. Credit allowed to Members for the whole of the first five Annual Premiums, on satisfactory security being given for their payment.

Transfers of Policies effected and registered (without charge) at the Office.

Claims and Policies not subject to be litigated or disputed, except with the sanction, in each case, of a General Meeting of the Members.

An extremely low Rate of Premium, without participation in the Profit, but with the option, at any time within five years, of paying up the difference between the Reduced Rates and the Mutual Assurance Rates; and thus becoming Members of the Society, and entitled to a full participation in the Profits.

Extract from the Reduced Scale of Rates, for an Assurance of 100l.

Age.	One Year.	Seven Years.	Whole Life.
30	£1 0 9	£1 6 3	£13 11
35	1 2 0	1 7 6	13 11
40	1 3 9	1 9 6	13 11
45	1 5 9	2 1 6	14 11
50	1 8 3	2 3 6	15 11
55	2 0 9	2 6 0	16 11
60	2 3 3	2 8 0	17 11

Full particulars are detailed in the Prospectus.

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such as could safely be assumed in evidence when judgment is demanded.

The biography of Lady Hester Stanhope is so well known, that it will be sufficient to indicate it in the fewest words. She was the daughter of Charles, Earl of Stanhope, by Hester, his first wife, daughter of the first Earl of Chatham. She was always, as we are informed by herself, full of activity, from her infancy. At two years old, she says, she constructed a little hat, for which her admiring grand-papa had a little box made, and ticketed with the date and her age. Other instances of precocity are related by her—some of them will be found in the following extracts:—

"Just before the French revolution broke out, the ambassador from Paris to the English Court was the Comte d'Adhémar. That nobleman had some influence on my fate as far as regarded my wish to go abroad, which, however, I was not able to gratify until many years afterwards. I was but seven or eight years old when I saw him; and, when he came by invitation to pay a visit to my papa at Chevening, there was such a fuss with the fine footmen with feathers in their hats, and the count's bows and French manners, and I know not what, that, a short time afterwards, when I was sent to Hastings with the governess and my sisters, nothing would satisfy me, but I must go and see what sort of a place France was. So I got into a boat one day unobserved, that was floating close to the beach, let loose the rope myself, and off I went. Yes, doctor, I literally pushed a boat off, and meant to go, as I thought, to France. Did you ever hear of such a mad scheme? But I was tired of all those around me, who, to all my questions, invariably answered, 'My dear, that is not proper for you to know,'—or, 'You must not talk about such things, until you get older;' and the like. So I held my tongue, but I made up for it, by treasuring up everything I heard and saw. Isn't it extraordinary that I should have such a memory? I can recall every circumstance that ever occurred to me during my life—everything worth retaining, that I wished to remember. I could tell what people said, how they sat, the colour of their hair, of their eyes, and all about them, at any time for the last forty years and more. At Hastings, for example, I can tell the name of the two smugglers, Tate and Everett, who attended at the bathing-machine, and the name of the apothecary, Dr. Satterly, although I have never heard a word about those persons from that day to this. How well I recollect what I was made to suffer when I was young; and that's the reason why I have sworn eternal warfare against Swiss and French governesses. Nature forms us in a certain manner, both inwardly and outwardly, and it is in vain to attempt to alter it. One governess at Chevening had our backs pinched in by boards, that were drawn tight with all the force the maid could use; and as for me, they would have squeezed me to the size of a puny miss—a thing impossible! My instep by nature so high, that a little kitten could walk under the sole of my foot, they used to bend down in order to flatten it, although that is one of the things that shows my high breeding. Nature, doctor, makes us one way, and man is always trying to fashion us another. Why, there was Mahon, when he was eight or nine years old, that never could be taught to understand how two and two make four. If he was asked, he would say, four and four make three, or ten, or something: he was shown with money, and with beans, and in every possible way, but all to no purpose. The fact was, that that particular faculty was not yet developed: but now, there is no better calculator anywhere. The most difficult sums he will do on his fingers; and he is besides a very great mathematician. There was a son of Lord Darnley's, a little boy, who was only big enough to lie under the table, or play on the sofa, and yet he could make calculations with I don't know how many figures—things that they have to do in the Treasury. Now, if that boy had gone on in the same way, he would by this time have been Chancellor of the Exchequer. But I hear nothing of him, and I don't know what has become of him; so I suppose he has not turned out any-

thing extraordinary. But nature was entirely out of the question with us: we were left to the governesses. Lady Stanhope got up at ten o'clock, went out, and then returned to be dressed, if in London, by the hair-dresser; and there were only two in London, both of them Frenchmen, who could dress her. Then she went out to dinner, and from dinner to the Opera, and from the Opera to parties, seldom returning until just before daylight. Lord Stanhope was engaged in his philosophical pursuits: and thus we children saw neither the one nor the other. Lucy used to say, that if she had met her mother-in-law in the streets, she should not have known her. Why, my father once followed to our own door in London a woman who happened to drop her glove, which he picked up. It was our governess; but, as he had never seen her in the house, he did not know her in the street. He slept with twelve blankets on his bed, with no nightcap, and his window open: how you would have laughed had you seen him! He used to get out of bed, and put on a thin dressing-gown, with a pair of silk breeches that he had worn overnight, with slippers, and no stockings: and then he would sit in a part of the room which had no carpet, and take his tea with a bit of brown bread. He married two wives; the first a Pitt, the second a Grenville; so that I am in two ways related to the Grenvilles. Sir Sydney Smith said of me, after he had known me fifteen years, and when my looks were much changed by illness, 'When I see you now, I recall to my recollection what you were when you first came out. You entered the room in your pale shirt, exciting our admiration by your magnificent and majestic figure. The roses and lilies were blended in your face, and the ineffable smiles of your countenance diffused happiness around you.' When mentioning this, her ladyship added: 'Doctor, at twenty my complexion was like alabaster; and, at five paces' distance, the sharpest eye could not discover my pearl necklace from my skin: my lips were of such a beautiful carnation, that without vanity, I can assure you very few women had the like. A dark blue shade under the eyes, and the blue veins that were observable through the transparent skin, heightened the brilliancy of my features. Nor were the roses wanting in my cheeks; and to all this was added a permanency in my looks that fatigue of no sort could impair.'

Lady Hester seems to have been fond of speaking of her former personal appearance, though she always refused to have her portrait taken. She alludes to it again in another manner:—

"When I was young, I was never what you call handsome, but brilliant. My teeth were brilliant, my complexion brilliant, my language—ah! there it was—something striking and original, that caught everybody's attention. I remember, when I was living with Mr. Pitt, that, one morning after a party, he said to me, 'Really, Hester, Lord Hertford,' (the father of the late lord, and a man of high pretensions for his courtly manners) paid you so many compliments about your looks last night, that you might well be proud of them.'—'Not at all,' answered I: 'he is deceived, if he thinks I am handsome, for I know I am not. If you were to take every feature in my face, and put them, one by one, on the table, there is not a single one would bear examination. The only thing is that, put together and lighted up, they look well enough. It is homogeneous ugliness, and nothing more.'"

It must be confessed that these personal recollections are given in a style sufficiently vivid; there is that sort of touch-and-go manner in the narratives, which marks the lively conversation of a person of the world. The things related are certainly not of much importance; and the rapid reference to them is in keeping with the subject. This kind of merit belongs to our next citations.

"I remember, when Colonel Shadwell commanded the district, that, one day, in a pelting shower of rain, he was riding up Madamscourt Hill, as I was crossing at the bottom, going home towards Chevening with my handsome groom, Tom, who was the natural son of a baronet. I saw Colonel Shadwell's

groom's horse about a couple of hundred yards from me, and, struck with its beauty, I turned up the hill, resolving to pass them, and get a look at it. I accordingly quickened my pace, and, in going by, gave a good look at the horse, then at the groom, then at the master, who was on a sorry nag. The colonel eyed me as I passed; and I, taking advantage of a low part in the hedge, put my horse to it, leaped over, and disappeared in an instant. The colonel found out who I was, and afterwards made such a fuss at the mess about my equestrian powers, that nothing could be like it. I was the toast there every day. Nobody ever saw much of me until Lord Romney's review. I was obliged to play a trick on my father to get there. I pretended, the day before, that I wanted to pay a visit to the Miss Crumps (or some such name), and then went from their house to Lord Romney's. Though all the gentry of Kent were there, my father never knew, or was supposed not to have known, that I had been there. The king took great notice of me. I dined with him—that is, what was called dining with him, but at an adjoining table. Lord and Lady Romney served the king and queen, and gentlemen waited on us. Upton changed my plate, and he did it very well. Doctor, dining with royalty, as Lord Melbourne does now, was not so common formerly. I never dined with the king but twice—once at Lord Romney's at an adjoining table, and once afterwards at his own table. Oh! what wry faces there were among some of the courtiers! Mr. Pitt was very much pleased at the reception I met with. The king took great notice of me, and, I believe, always after liked me personally. Whenever I was talking to the dukes, he was sure to come towards us. 'Where is she?' he would cry; 'where is she? I hear them laugh, and where they are laughing I must go too.' Then, as he came nearer, he would observe, 'If you have anything to finish I won't come yet—I'll come in a quarter of an hour.' When he was going away from Lord Romney's, he wanted to put me bodkin between himself and the queen; and when the queen had got into the carriage, he said to her, 'My dear, Lady Hester is going to ride bodkin with us: I am going to take her away from Democracy Hall.' But the old queen observed, in rather a prim manner, that I 'had not got my maid with me, and that it would be inconvenient for me to go to such a short notice.' So I remained. It was at that review that I was talking to some officers, and something led to my saying, 'I can't bear men who are governed by their wives, as Sir A. H*** is; a woman of sense, even if she did govern her husband, would not let it be seen: it is odious, in my opinion.' And I went on in this strain, whilst poor Sir A. himself, whom I did not know, but had only heard spoken of, was standing by all the time. I saw a dreadful consternation in the bystanders, but I went on. At last some one—taking commiseration on him, I suppose—said, 'Lady Hester, will you allow me to introduce Sir A. H*** to you, who is desirous of making your acquaintance.' Sir A. very politely thanked me for the advice I had given him; and I answered something about the regard my brother had for him, and there the matter ended."

The style of conversation to which we have alluded has also its own technics. The following passage presents us with a term used both by Mr. Pitt and Lady Hester, not to be found in Johnson,—the word "primosity," which, being interpreted, means "prudery."

"When first I went to live with Mr. Pitt, one day he and I were taking a walk in the park, when we were met by Lord G., having Lady — and Lady —, two old demireps, under his arm. Mr. Pitt and I passed them, and Mr. Pitt pulled off his hat. Lord G. turned his head away, without acknowledging his bow. The fact was, he thought Mr. Pitt was escorting some mistress he had got. 'Well,' said I, 'there goes Falstaff with his merry wives of Windsor.' 'Yes,' rejoined Mr. Pitt, 'and I think, whatever he may take you to be, he need not be so prim, with those two painted and patched ladies under his arm.' The same thing happened with Lord A.; and, when Mr. Pitt soon after came into office, Lord A. called on Mr. Pitt, who, being busy, sent him to me. Lord A. began

with a vast variety of compliments about ancient attachments, and his recollection, when a boy, of having played with me. So I cut him short, by telling him his memory then must have sadly failed him the other day, when he passed me and Mr. Pitt in his curriole with Lady —. After many 'Really I supposed,' and 'Upon my honours,'—'Sense of propriety on account of Lady —, and not knowing who I was'—I laughed heartily at him, and he went away. When he was gone, Mr. Pitt came to me, and said, 'I don't often ask questions about your visitors, but I should really like to know what excuse Lord A. could offer for his primosity to us, when he was riding with such a Jezebel as Lady —.' Yet it might have been very natural for Mr. Pitt to do so. How many people used to come and ask me impertinent questions, in order to get out his state secrets: but I very soon set them down. 'What, you are come to give me a lesson of impertinence,' I used to say, laughing in their faces. One day, one of them, of rather a first-rate class, began with—'Now, my dear Lady Hester, you know our long friendship, and the esteem I have for you—now do just tell me, who is to go out ambassador to Russia?' So I was resolved to try him; and, with a very serious air, I said, 'Why, if I had to choose, there are only three persons whom I think fit for the situation—Mr. Tom Grenville, Lord Malmesbury, and I forget who was the third: but you know, I added, 'Lord Malmesbury's health will not allow him to go to so cold a climate, and Mr., the other, is something and something, so that he is out of the question.' Next morning, doctor, there appeared in 'The Oracle'—a paper, observe, that Mr. Pitt never read—'We understand that Lord M. and Mr. T. G. are selected as the two persons best qualified for the embassy to Russia; but, owing to his lordship's ill-health, the choice will most likely fall on Mr. T. G.' I was highly amused the following days, to hear the congratulations that were paid to Mr. Grenville. But, when the real choice came to be known, which was neither one nor the other, oh! how black the inquisitive friend of mine looked; and what reproaches he made me for having, as he called it, deceived him. But I did not deceive him: I only told him what was true, that if I had the choice I would choose such and such persons. There are, necessarily, hundreds of reasons for ministers' actions, that people in general know nothing about. When the Marquis — was sent to India, it was on condition that he did not take — with him: for Mr. Pitt said, 'It is all very well if he chooses to go alone, but he shan't take — with him. For—who knows?—she may be, all the time, carrying on intrigues with the French government, and that would not suit my purpose.' There might be some apparent levity in my manner, both as regarded affairs of the cabinet and my own; but I always knew what I was doing. When Mr. Pitt was reproached for allowing me such unreserved liberty of action in state matters, and in affairs where his friends advised him to question me on the motives of my conduct, he always answered—'I let her do as she pleases; for if she were resolved to cheat the devil she could do it.' And so I could, doctor; and that is the reason why thick-headed people, who could never dive into the motives of what I did, have often misinterpreted my conduct, when it has proceeded from the purest intentions. And, in the same way, when some persons said to Lady Suffolk, 'Look at Lady Hester, talking and riding with Bouverie and the Prince's friends; she must mind what she is about'—Lady Suffolk remarked, 'There is nothing to fear in that quarter; she never will let anybody do a bit more than she intends: what she does is with *connaissance de cause*.' And she was right: nobody could ever accuse me of folly. Even those actions which might seem folly to a common observer, were wisdom. Everything with me, through life, has been premeditatedly done. Mr. Pitt paid me the greatest compliment I ever received from any living being. He was speaking of C****, and lamenting he was so false, and so little to be trusted; and I said, 'But perhaps he is only so in appearance, and is sacrificing ostensibly his own opinions, in order to support your reputation.'—'I have lived,' replied Mr. Pitt, 'twenty-five

years in the midst of men of all sorts, and I never yet found but one human being capable of such a sacrifice.'—'Who can that be?' said I. 'Is it the Duke of Richmond? Is it such a one?' and I named two others, when he interrupted me—'No—it is *you*.' I was not insensible to praise from such a man; and when, before Horne Tooke and some other clever people, he told me I was fit to sit between Augustus and Mæcenas, I suppose I must believe it. And he did not think so lightly of my lectures as you do; for one day he said to me, 'We are going to establish a new hospital, and you, Hester, are to have the management of it. It is to be a hospital for the diseases of the mind; for nobody knows so well as you how to cure them.' I should never have done if I were to repeat the many attestations of his good opinion of me. But it was no merit of mine if I deserved it: I was born so. There was a man one day at table with Mr. Pitt, an old friend of his—Mr. Canning told me the story—who, speaking of me, observed that he supposed I should soon marry, and, after some conversation on the subject, concluded by saying, 'I suppose she waits till she can get a man as clever as herself.' 'Then,' answered Mr. Pitt, 'she will never marry at all.' In like manner, in the troublesome times of his political career, Mr. Pitt would say, 'I have plenty of good diplomats, but they are none of them military men; and I have plenty of good officers, but not one of them is worth sixpence in the cabinet. If you were a man, Hester, I would send you on the Continent with 60,000 men, and give you *carte blanche*; and I am sure that not one of my plans would fail, and not one soldier would go with his shoes unlaced;' meaning, that my attention would embrace every duty that belongs to a general and a corporal—and so it would, doctor."

The following passage is valuable, as showing the change of manners:—

"As for tutors, and doctors, and such people, if, now-a-days, my lords and my ladies walk arm-in-arm with them, they did not do so in my time. I recollect an old dowager, to whom I used sometimes to be taken to spend the morning. She was left with a large jointure and a fine house for the time being, and used to invite the boys and girls of my age, I mean the age I was then, with their tutors and governesses, to come and see her. 'How do you do, Dr. Mackenzie? Lord John, I see, is all the better for his medicine. The duchess is happy in having found a man of such excellent talents, which are almost too great to be confined to the sphere of one family.'—'Such is the nature of our compact, my Lady, nor could I on any account violate the regulations which so good a family has imposed upon me.'—'It's very cold, Dr. Mackenzie: I think I increased my rheumatic pains at the Opera on Saturday night.'—'Did you ever try Dover's Powders, my Lady?' He does not, you see, tell her to use Dover's Powders: he only says, did you ever try them? 'Lord John—Lord John, you must take care, and not eat too much of that strawberry preserve.' 'How do you do, Mr. K.?—how do you do, Lord Henry? I hope the Marchioness is well? She looked divinely last night. Did you see her when she was dressed, Mr. K.?—You will pardon me, my lady,' answers the tutor, 'I did indeed see her; but it would be presumptuous in me to speak of such matters. I happened to take her a map' (mind, doctor, he does not say a map of what), 'and, certainly, I did cast my eyes on her dress, which was, no doubt, in the best taste, as everything the Marchioness does is.' Observe, here is no mention of her looks or person. Doctors and tutors never presumed formerly to talk about the complexion, and skin, and beauty, of those in whose families they lived or found practice. Why, haven't I told you, over and over again, how Dr. W.—lost his practice from having said that a patient of his, who died, was one of the most beautiful corpses he had ever seen, and that he had stood contemplating her for a quarter of an hour. She was a person of rank, and it ruined him. Even his son, who was a doctor too, and had nothing to do with it, never could get on afterwards."

The last instance, we think, is scarcely a case in point. There was an indelicacy in Dr. W.'s

statement ing, would from all of however, Hester do lency of a such an in aristocratic frequent testifies: " 'Poc was disput Colonel, al somebody's for it had equal to it with great Moore was answered, ' but,' said C him when h his face." I could not it a mark o ideas in pe such equiv collect Mr. As for what me, I don't and whatve me has no the sun. I the harm spit at a m not hang. horse's tail about, and bom! and kinds. I n who cannot man who is I always s their hand, don't trou attention to if any one to me, that who I am.' Such are Stanhope's general. a request but it scen all deducti than 1,200 was that in misery of words:— "At first herself in M and she th "But," she tor, is the able to kee I used a would be su I saw yeste where she c row streets me, there a flaunt abou hazard of h went alone, tured friend not walk ou met in the quaintance, Hester! wh accompany you see Lad such a one? der where th to another, and this it w Lord Templ me one day, who used to

statement (if not in the act), which, to our feeling, would rightly subject him to censure, apart from all considerations of rank. It is curious, however, and marks her character, that Lady Hester does not appear to have seen the indelicacy of a physician, in ordinary cases, making such an incident the topic of discourse. Nor is aristocratic insensibility to such points without frequent illustration—as Lady Hester herself testifies:—

“Poor Charles! My brother Charles one day was disputing with James about his handsome Colonel, and James, on his side, was talking of somebody's leg being handsome, saying he was right, for it had been modelled, and nobody's could be equal to it; when Charles turned to me, and asked with great earnestness if I did not think General Moore was the better made man of the two, I answered, ‘He is certainly very handsome.’—‘Oh! but,’ said Charles, ‘Hester, if you were only to see him when he is bathing, his body is as perfect as his face.’ I never even smiled, although inwardly I could not help smiling at his *naïveté*. I consider it a mark of vulgarity and of the association of bad ideas in people's minds when they make a handle of such equivocal in an ill-natured way, as you recollect Mr. T. did when he was at Alexandria. * * As for what people in England say or have said about me, I don't care that for them (snapping her fingers); and whatever vulgar-minded people say or think of me has no more effect than if they were to spit at the sun. It only falls on their own nose, and all the harm they do is to themselves. They may spit at a marble wall as they may at me, but it will not hang. They are like flies upon an artillery-horse's tail—there they ride, and ride, and buzz about, and then there comes a great explosion; boom! and off they fly. I hate affectation of all kinds. I never could bear those ridiculous women who cannot step over a straw without expecting the man who is walking with them to offer his hand. I always said to the men, when they offered me their hand, ‘No, no; I have got legs of my own, don't trouble yourselves.’ Nobody pays so little attention to what are called punctilios as I do; but if any one piques me on my rank, and what is due to me, that's another thing; I can then show them who I am.”

Such are some of the relations of Lady Hester Stanhope with Mr. Pitt and the aristocracy in general. On his death-bed, the Minister wrote a request that she might have 1,500*l.* a year; but it seems that her Ladyship got clear, after all deductions for property tax, &c. no more than 1,200*l.* The inadequacy of her income it was that induced her to leave England. The misery of her condition is best told in her own words:—

“At first, after Mr. Pitt's death, she established herself in Montague Square, with her two brothers, and she there continued to see much company. ‘But,’ she would say, ‘a poor gentlewoman, doctor, is the worst thing in the world. Not being able to keep a carriage, how was I to go out? If I used a hackney-coach, some spiteful person would be sure to mention it:—“Who do you think I saw yesterday in a hackney-coach? I wonder where she could be driving alone, down those narrow streets?” If I walked with a footman behind me, there are so many women of the town now who flaunt about with a smart footman, that I ran the hazard of being taken for one of them; and, if I went alone, either there would be some good-natured friend who would hint that Lady Hester did not walk out alone for nothing; or else I should be met in the street by some gentleman of my acquaintance, who would say, “God bless me, Lady Hester! where are you going alone?—do let me accompany you.” and then it would be said, “Did you see Lady Hester crossing Hanover Square with such a one? He looked monstrous foolish: I wonder where they had been.” So that, from one thing to another, I was obliged to stop at home entirely: and this it was that hurt my health so much, until Lord Temple, at last, remarked it. For he said to me one day, “How comes it that a person like you, who used to be always on horseback, never rides

out?”—“Because I have no horse.”—“Oh! if that is all, you shall have one to-morrow.”—“Thank you, my lord; but, if I have a horse, I must have two; and, if I have two, I must have a groom; and, as I do not choose to borrow, if you please, we will say no more about it.”—“Oh! but I will send my horses, and come and ride out with you every day.” However, I told him no: for how could a man who goes to the House every day, and attends committees in a morning, be able to be riding every day with me? And I know what it is to lend and borrow horses and carriages. When I used to desire my carriage to go and fetch any friend, my coachman was sure to say, “My lady, the horses want shoeing;” or the footman would come in with a long face, “My lady, John would like to go and see his sister to-day, if you please;” there was always some excuse. All this considered, I made up my mind to remain at home.” For some time did Lady Hester remain in Montague Square; but her brother and General Moore, having fallen at the battle of Corunna, I believe she grew entirely disgusted with London; and, breaking up her little establishment, she went down into Wales, and resided in a small cottage at Bwlth, somewhere near Brecon, in a room not more than a dozen feet square. Here she amused herself in curing the poor, in her dairy, and in other rustic occupations: until, not finding herself so far removed from her English acquaintances but what they were always coming across her and breaking-in upon her solitude, she resolved on going abroad, up the Mediterranean.”

We must reserve, till another opportunity, the remainder of the narrative.

Cyclopædia of Biblical Literature. By John Kitto, assisted by various able Scholars and Divines. Parts I.-XIX. Edinburgh, A. & C. Black; London, Longman & Co.

THE first parts of this work we slightly noticed immediately after their appearance; and the favourable opinion which we then expressed concerning it has been abundantly confirmed by the subsequent monthly issues. Now that two-thirds of it, at least, are before us, we feel ourselves called on to notice it more at length.

The Bible is, on all hands, allowed to be a difficult book. Abounding with Hebraisms, Hellenisms, and archaisms of all kinds; with references to empires which have passed away, and to cities of which no vestige has been discovered; with allusions to habits, institutions, manners and customs so widely different from those of Europe, it must at all times have demanded considerable learning to understand a tithe of the difficulties in question,—and a still greater portion the more we are removed, whether by time or distance, from the events and the scenes therein described. If such men as Chrysostom, Augustine, and Jerome felt their own deficiencies in this respect, well may we feel them. That throughout the Middle Ages the Bible should be denominated a sealed book, is natural; that, with all the aids of modern learning, it should still contain many things to baffle the inquirer, was no less to be expected. Men will not long persevere in reading what they have neither the ability nor the hope to understand; and thus it is that extensive readers of everything else have either ceased to read the Scriptures at all, or read them only at stated times. Yet the most venerable and the most important book in the world has little deserved such neglect; and such neglect, if we are not greatly mistaken, it will not much longer encounter.

It is impossible to praise too highly the efforts which have been made during the last, and still more during the present century, to elucidate this extraordinary book. The restoration of the text, Hebrew and Greek, by the collation of MSS., and by the application of the same laws of criticism as have so long been employed in regard to the profane writers of antiquity; a

more searching inquiry into the origin and import of words; a wider acquaintance with ancient literature, and especially with that contained in the cognate Oriental tongues; a deeper insight into the history and institutions of Western Asia prior to the Christian era, a profound investigation of its antiquities; a diligent comparison of such modern customs and manners as have any degree of affinity with those of the nations mentioned in the Sacred Writings; the determinations of ancient places by a careful examination of existing ruins; the new light thrown on the natural history of the Bible, and still more on the genius and nature of Oriental composition generally;—these, and subjects like these, have, during the last thirty years, and still more within the last fifteen, unceasingly occupied the attention of travellers and scholars, in a degree unexampled in the annals of criticism. The result has been such as any one might have foreseen: the difficulties of the Bible have been greatly diminished, and an impulse given to the spirit of inquiry that is likely to lead to still happier consequences. If the writers of Scripture were inspired, they were still men: the language, the illustrations they employed were instruments of their own, and were common to others as well as to themselves. Opinions, expressions, and conventionalities common to the civilized world could not fail to be adopted by them: the sense, therefore, in which others employed such instruments will direct us to that which they had in view. And thus it is with antiquities,—the relation still holding good between words and things existing in the Apostolic times, and the words and things existing in the time of Moses and Abraham. Thus, the sacrificial language of the Jews must necessarily throw light on the nature of Christ's universal sacrifice. In like manner, the language of Plato, so generally adopted by the Greeks in the same Apostolic times, casts a very useful light on many passages of St. John's Gospel and of St. Paul's Epistles. If it be the duty of the modern theologian to study profoundly the language, literature, and institutions of the Jews, it is almost equally so to bring other “ancient learning, literature, and philosophy, and especially the philosophy of Greece, to bear upon the rise and progress, the object and end of Christianity.” It is manifest that the passages of the New Testament relating to the superstition, the immoralities, the knowledge and opinions of the Gentiles, must derive alike evidence and confirmation from Gentile literature, history, and philosophy, in precisely the same manner as the passages relating to the Jews must be explained by Jewish history, literature and philosophy. In short, but for that learning, which so many sects in the Christian world have concurred in decriing, the Bible would at this moment be as unintelligible as the sacred books of the Hindoos.

In the *Cyclopædia* before us, we recognize the closeness of the connexion between the Scriptural and the profane subjects of the ancient world; the learning and ability with which the one class is made to throw light upon the other; the industry with which obsolete usages are again restored to the knowledge of mankind; the acute criticism which is made to bear on the most disputed forms and things of revelation; and the extraordinary illustration which the most recondite subjects receive at the hands of the contributors. Those contributors (above thirty in number) contain some eminent scholars, both foreign and English. It is from the German portion of them especially, that the work derives its chief value. This fact is of importance. The humble name of “John Kitto” on the title would lead few readers to suspect the treasures which the work contains. He is indeed, as he professes to be,

"assisted by various able scholars and divines." But we are too much influenced by great, or at least by imposing names. It is high time to do away with this weakness. We have many writers, with half the alphabet after their names, whose aggregate attainments would not equal those of plain "John Kitto,"—assuming, as we do, that the contributions to which there are no initials are mostly from his pen. Collegiate and academic distinctions have ceased to have any real value. The most learned, and by far the most able men we have ever known, have been indebted to neither great schools nor colleges. Not that we are insensible—far from it—to the merit of some distinguished members of the leading universities: but is each one indebted to his *Alma Mater* alone for his acquirements? Would not each have become just as learned (we think more so), had he been educated at a good private school, or no school at all, if libraries equally extensive had been placed within his reach? It is the library, not the college tutor, that directs the way to the store-house of erudition.

Among the many excellent contributions to this Cyclopædia, we would particularly indicate the words Gnosticism—Logos—Job—Inheritance—Loan—Greek Philosophy—Palestine—Hebrew Poetry—Pharisee—Introduction—Inspiration—Prophecy—Isaiah—Ezekiel. All these are admirable; and nearly equally so are many others that might easily be indicated,—those, especially, which relate to the leading characters of the Old and the New Testaments. But while bearing our testimony to the merit of such articles, we must not forget that there are a few others which, however ably composed, are not likely to be equally useful. In a work of this kind,—which should, in the best sense of the word, be Catholic,—which should carefully eschew everything sectarian,—which is designed for the common benefit of all who hold the essentials of Christianity,—we are sorry to see anything at which honest, or even prejudiced minds could take offence. Thus, in the article *Justification*, we shall not stop to inquire whether the imputation of Christ's righteousness be or be not founded in Scripture: but we are sure that the doctrine is opposed by no small portion of the Christian world; and for this reason only, it ought to have been omitted. Again: whether *Fasting* be a duty, and enjoined by Divine authority, we shall not here inquire; but nothing is more certain than that some religious communities regard it as one; and to them the remarks on the subject in the work before us will not be agreeable. Nor can we shut our eyes to the fact, that, in places, there is a freedom of interpretation which, however suited to the religious atmosphere of Germany or the United States of America, will not be admired here. We make these remarks with the more concern, as they affect a book otherwise so excellent. We do not mean to insinuate that the peculiarities in question detract much, if at all, from its merit; they are trifling indeed, compared with its general spirit. But, beyond all doubt, they will create a prejudice against it in the minds of some readers, who would otherwise avail themselves of its valuable information. They are not, we may be told, essentials, either to religion or to the Church. Granted: but human opinions have as much influence as Divine truth on the bulk of mankind; and the writer, in these days, who aims at being useful, must respect even prejudices.

The Letters of Philip Dormer Stanhope, Earl of Chesterfield. Edited, with Notes, by Lord Mahon. 4 vols. Bentley.

Past and Present Policy of England towards Ireland. Moxon.

Philip Dormer Stanhope, fourth Earl of Chesterfield, was one of that numerous class of persons

who obtain high estimation among their contemporaries, but who, after the lapse of one or two generations, sink into comparative oblivion. It was unfortunate for his fame that the first portion of his correspondence presented to the public was the too celebrated collection of letters to his natural son; they were universally received as a code of education, prepared by an eminent statesman and diplomatist, and, as such, were subjected to an ordeal for which they were neither suited nor designed. Instead of being a general code, these letters contained only the special directions which the writer believed necessary in an individual and very peculiar case, and therefore no fair estimate of their instructions can be formed without constant reference to the character of the person for whom they were intended. Young Stanhope was disposed to be a pedant, and to him, therefore, the comparative unimportance of mere book-learning might fairly be preached; his manners were shy and repulsive, and hence to him the necessity of cultivating the graces might be represented as a matter of primary importance: even the graver faults which have been found with this system of instruction might be palliated by the peculiarity of the case for which they were designed; and this Chesterfield himself felt, for he would have prevented their publication if he could: the letters were given to the world by the young Stanhope's widow, with whom the large sum paid for the copyright outweighed all other considerations.

Chesterfield's career as a statesman and diplomatist has little interest for the present generation; with the single exception of his brief lord-lieutenancy of Ireland, there is nothing in his political life that possesses historical importance. The exception, however, is one of great magnitude, and Chesterfield's Irish administration may be beneficially studied by statesmen of the present day. To this portion of his life we shall, therefore, confine our attention, and we shall view it in connexion with the second work quoted at the head of this article, as illustrating the course of English policy towards Ireland.

Soon after the Revolution an attempt was made to effect a legislative union between England and Ireland, but the English government of the day would not listen to the proposition, and the greater part of a century was spent by the parliaments of the two countries in a race of impolicy to ward off a junction on the one hand and to prevent a separation on the other. Orators, in flights of eloquence that savour more of poetry than politics, have spoken of "the golden and unenerous link of the crown," as the means by which the two kingdoms were held together. Golden it was with a vengeance, for never was such profuse and shameless bribery displayed as in the government of Ireland; but "unenerous" it was not, for the Irish parliament, with but trifling exceptions, through the whole of the last century, was the most tyrannical and oppressive oligarchy that ever wielded the destinies of a nation. It was the avowed policy of statesmen to keep this oligarchy in a state of isolation, or rather in an attitude of hostility to the Irish people. Primate Boulter, who was the real governor of Ireland from 1724 to 1742, and whose crozier proved heavier than a sceptre of iron, writing on the coalition of all parties against Wood's patent, says, "The worst of it is, that it tends to unite protestants with papists; and whenever that happens, good bye to the English interest in Ireland!" To effect such a union of men of different creeds, is the wiser policy of the nineteenth century, but we must not expect to efface by any single measure the consequences of more than a century of hostility and alienation. This better course originated with the Earl of Ches-

terfield; he assumed the government in 1743, when the invasion of the young Pretender had filled England with a panic terror equally disgraceful to the nation and its rulers. Chesterfield did not share the general alarm; he wrote from Dublin to David Mallet:—

"I cannot comprehend the consternation which 8,000 of your countrymen have, I find, thrown seven millions of mine into; I, who at this distance, see things only in their plain natural light, am, I confess, under no apprehensions; I consider a Highlander (with submission to you) as Rowe does a Lord, who when opposed to a man, he affirms to be but a man; from which principle I make this inference, that 49,000 must beat 8,000, not to mention our sixteen new regiments, which must go for something, though in my opinion not for much. I have with much difficulty quieted the fears here, which were at first very strong, partly by contagion from England, and partly from old prejudices, which my good subjects are far from being yet above. They are in general still at the year 1689, and have not shook off any religious or political prejudice that prevailed at that time. However, I am very glad I am among them; for in this little sphere, a little may do a great deal of good, but in England they must be much stronger shoulders than mine that can do any good at that bulky machine. Pray let me hear from you as often and as minutely as you have leisure; most correspondents, like most very learned men, suppose that one knows more than one does, and therefore don't tell one half what they could, so one never knows so much as one should."

Chesterfield was one of the few lords-lieutenant of Ireland who made Confidence instead of Fear his chief councillor. On his arrival he found that the government had been in a state of suspended animation for several years.

"The council door has not been opened for some years, I think seven or eight, and crowds are pressing at it, as it is really a Board of consequence here, being part of the Legislature. Some new members are really wanting, it being sometimes difficult to make up a quorum; but the greatest difficulty of all was, where to stop. I have at last reduced the number to eight, of which I don't reckon above five effective, which is about the number wanted at the Board."

It is much to be regretted that Lord Mahon has only given one letter, and that of but trifling importance, relating to public business during Chesterfield's brief administration of Irish affairs. We cannot understand how the noble editor was prevented from using the documents preserved among the archives of Dublin Castle. During the debate in the House of Lords of November 27, 1837, Lord Mulgrave (now Marquis of Normanby), quoted part of a letter of Chesterfield's, which we should very gladly have seen complete. We copy the extract from Hansard:—

"I came determined to proscribe no set of persons whatever, and determined to be governed by none. Had the Papists made any attempt to set themselves above the law, I should have taken good care to have quelled them again. It was said that my lenity to the Papists had wrought no alteration either in their religious or their political sentiments. I did not expect that it would; but surely that was no reason for cruelty towards them."

But though Chesterfield's government of Ireland was of short duration, his zeal for the true interests of that country only ended with his life. Soon after his return to London we find him writing to Mr. Prior, and recommending to Irish gentlemen a course of policy which it would be well for the country if they adopted at the present hour:—

"As you are one of the few in Ireland, who always think of the public, without any mixture of private interest; I do not doubt but that you have already thought of some useful methods of employing the King's bounty to the Dublin Society. The late additional tax upon glass here, as it must considerably raise the price of glass-bottles imported into Ireland, seems to point out the manufacturing them there; which consideration, with a small premium added to

it, would, Fine writin of togethe I left Dub try is want perfection Holland, am convinc a great de make it Here is starch of p his own in it in a day strictly pr but flour. Ireland? starch from do, for you be well wo advantage to my kno abundantly wits of job to with as a very diff solidly inc estates, up the public Ireland to least as m your guard word for it than of th

At a la man, he s "Five th annis into the excess inferior so there, as m and tuns o the consti tunes, of the care of all between pu you think that a Cla better atten fax-seed we shall be re attention to of your la and the in the advan Lieutenant matters. I sops for e Parliament subjects' li arts of G people sho modestly b that is po can; and s be disting Irish Lord Lieutenant

Some w was remov of his part is one of t Irishmen, country, a recalled to Lord Mar the offi quence of procured he was pr intimated founder of

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it, would, in my mind, set up such a manufacture. Fine writing and printing paper, we have often talked of together; and the specimen you gave me, before I left Dublin, proves, that nothing but care and industry is wanting, to bring that manufacture to such a perfection as to prevent the exportation of it from Holland, and through Holland from France; nay, I am convinced that you might supply England with a great deal if you pleased, that is, if you would make it, as you could do, both good and cheap. Here is a man who has found out a method of making starch of potatoes, and, by the help of an engine of his own invention, to make a prodigious quantity of it in a day. But here is an Act of Parliament which strictly prohibits the making starch with anything but flour. Have you such an Act of Parliament in Ireland? If you have not, and that you import your starch from England, as I take it for granted that you do, for you import every thing that you can, it would be well worth this man's while to go to Ireland, and advantageously for you that he should; his starch being to my knowledge and experience full as good, and abundantly cheaper than any other. These are the sorts of jobs that I wish people in Ireland would attend to with as much industry and care, as they do to jobs of a very different nature. These honest arts would solidly increase their fortunes, and improve their estates, upon the only true and permanent foundation, the public good. Leave us and your regular forces in Ireland to fight for you: think of your manufactures at least as much as of your militia, and be as much upon your guard against Poverty as against Popery: take my word for it, you are in more danger of the former than of the latter."

At a later date, writing to the same gentleman, he says:—

"Five thousand tuns of wine imported *communibus annis* into Ireland, is a sure, but indecent, proof of the excessive drinking of the gentry there, for the inferior sort of people cannot afford to drink wine there, as many of them can here; so that these five thousand tuns of wine are chiefly employed in destroying the constitutions, the faculties, and too often the fortunes, of those of superior rank, who ought to take care of all the others. Were there to be a contest between public cellars and public granaries, which do you think would carry it? I believe you will allow that a Claret Board, if there were one, would be much better attended than the Linen Board, *unless when flax-seed were to be distributed*. I am sensible that I shall be reckoned a very shallow politician, for my attention to such trifling objects as the improvement of your lands, the extension of your manufactures, and the increase of your trade, which only tend to the advantages of the public; whereas an able Lord-Lieutenant ought to employ his thoughts in greater matters. He should think of jobs for favourites, sops for enemies, managing parties, and engaging Parliaments to vote away their own and their fellow-subjects' liberties and properties. But these great arts of Government, I confess, are above me, and people should not go out of their depth. I will modestly be content with wishing Ireland all the good that is possible, and with doing it all the good I can; and so weak am I, that I would much rather be distinguished and remembered by the name of the Irish Lord-Lieutenant, than by that of the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland."

Some writers have asserted that Chesterfield was removed from the government, on account of his partiality for Ireland and its people. This is one of those unhappy exaggerations in which Irishmen, when pleading the wrongs of their country, are rather too apt to indulge. He was recalled to be promoted; and we learn from Lord Marchmont's Diary, that his promotion to the office of Secretary of State was the consequence of his conduct in Ireland, which had procured him the favour of George II., to whom he was previously distasteful. Indeed, this is intimated in his letter to Dr. Madden, the founder of the Dublin Society:—

"A concurrence of circumstances has obliged me to change an easy for a laborious employment, in which too, I fear, it will be much less in my power to do good, than it was in my former. It may seem vain to say so, but I will own that I thought I could,

and began to hope that I should do some good in Ireland. I flattered myself that I had put jobs a little out of fashion, and your own manufactures a little in fashion, and that I had in some degree discouraged the pernicious and beastly practice of drinking, with many other pleasing visions of public good. At least I am sure I was earnest in my wishes, and would have been assiduous in my endeavours for it. Fortune, chance, or Providence, call it which you will, has removed me from you, and has assigned me another destination; but has not, I am sure, changed my inclinations, my wishes, or my efforts, upon occasion, for the interest and prosperity of Ireland; and I shall always retain the truest affection for, and remembrance of, that country; I wish I could say of that rich, flourishing, and industrious nation. I hope it will in time be so, and I even think it makes some progress that way, though not so quick as I could wish; but, however, there are righteous enough to save the city, and the examples of you and many of your friends, will, I hope, prove happily and beneficially contagious."

We extract a very vivid picture of the social state of Ireland, from another letter to the same gentleman; we fear that much of it is too applicable to the country now, after the lapse of a century:—

"The Irish may be a rich and happy people, *bona si sua norint*. Free from the heavy load of debts and taxes under which the English groan, as fit for arts, sciences, industry, and labour, as any people in the world, they might, notwithstanding some hard restraints which England, by a mistaken policy, has laid them under, push several branches of trade to great perfection and profit; and not only supply themselves with everything they want, but other nations too with many things. But jobs and claret engross and ruin the people of fashion, and the ordinary people (as is usual in every country) imitate them in little momentary and mistaken views of present profit, and in whisky. As to the incorporating by Charter the Dublin Society, I see many advantages that might arise from it; but I must at the same time own, that I foresee some dangers too. Jobs have hitherto always accompanied Charters, however they may have been calculated to prevent them. The Dublin Society has hitherto gone on extremely well, and done infinite good: why? Because, that not being a permanent, incorporated Society, and having no employments to dispose of, and depending only for their existence on their own good behaviour, it was not a theatre for jobbers to show their skill upon; but, when once established by Charter, the very advantages which are expected from, and which, I believe, will attend that Charter, I fear may prove fatal. It may then become an object of party, and Parliamentary views (for you know how low they stoop); in which case it will become subservient to the worst instead of the best designs. Remember the Linen Board, where the paltry dividend of a little flax-seed was become the seed of jobs, which indeed produced one hundred fold."

Efforts were at this time made to establish the paper manufacture in Ireland, and according to the fashion of the day the projectors looked for their success, not to their own skill and industry, but to jobs, bounties and protections. Chesterfield's advice to one of the manufacturers is worthy the pen of Franklin:—

"Your paper already wants but very little of equaling the best that any other country furnishes, and I see no reason why you should not bring it soon to such a point of perfection as to supply all the demands of Ireland, and possibly some of England; for at present we import a great deal from other countries. Let me give you one piece of advice, though I believe you want it less than most manufacturers in Ireland. Never think your paper either good enough or cheap enough, be it ever so good or ever so cheap, but always endeavour to make it both better and cheaper, and sacrifice a little present and precarious to future and permanent profit. Acquire the public confidence in the goodness and reasonableness of your manufacture, and your fortune will be solid and lasting, both to you and your family, if they will tread in your steps. I know a thread-merchant of Rotterdam, who has got above thirty thousand pounds by his industry, punctuality, and integrity. He never

let a yard of bad thread go out of his hands, and never took a farthing more than reasonable profit. By these means he has acquired such confidence, that people make no difficulty of sending a blind man or a child for what thread they want, sure not to be deceived either in the quantity or the quality of it. At first he got little, but then he lived low; his profits increased faster than his expenses, and his expense now bears a just proportion to his fortune. Most tradespeople in Ireland begin just at the other end, and therefore end so ill as they frequently do. By what you have done, it is plain you do not want these hints, and I hope your example will suggest them to those who do."

The struggles between Primate Stone and Boyle, the Speaker of the Irish House of Commons, have long since lost their interest; Chesterfield has very briefly, but accurately, sketched their character in a letter to Major Irvine, then in Dublin:—

"As well as I can judge at this distance, from the various accounts I have had of your squabbles and quarrels in Ireland, *c'est tout comme chez nous*. The great point is, who shall govern the Government; and I presume that all heads have been too busy upon that point to think one moment of the real interests of Ireland. What an effusion of claret must all this have occasioned! For it is a maxim, that business is best done over a bottle, and that people are never so fit for it as when they are fit for nothing else. I make no doubt, but that there has more claret been drunk over the barracks this winter than will be drunk in them these ten years; and I wonder the bridge was not agreed to, considering the national aversion to water. I not only hope, but am persuaded, that you do not give into this *cochennerie*, which ungentlemen everybody. A sprightly *débauche* now and then is very well; but the dull, sedate, and continued guzzling of claret is very unbecoming to a young fellow."

On the subject of the penal laws, Chesterfield's opinions were far in advance of his age, though in our day they are open to some grave objections. He states them in a letter to Bishop Chenevix, who, like Bishop Woodward, in a later day, combined a strenuous opposition to Romish doctrines, with as strenuous an advocacy of the civil rights of those by whom they were professed:—

"Does Lord Clanbrassil bring in his Register Bill this Session? If he can keep it short, clear, and mild, it will be, in my opinion, a very good one. Some time or other (though God knows when) it will be found out in Ireland, that the Popish religion and influence cannot be subdued by force, but may be undermined and destroyed by art. Allow the Papists to buy lands, let and take leases equally with the Protestants, but subject to the *Gavel Act*, which will always have its effect upon their posterity at least. Tie them down to the government by the tender but strong bonds of landed property, which the Pope will have much ado to dissolve, notwithstanding his power of loosening and binding. Use those who come over to you, though perhaps only seemingly at first, well and kindly, instead of looking for their cloven feet and their tails, as you do now. Increase both your number and your care of the Protestant Charter-schools. Make your penal laws extremely mild, and then put them strictly in execution.

Ha tibi erunt artes.

This would do in time, and nothing else will, nor ought. I would as soon murder a man for his estate, as prosecute him for his religious and speculative errors; and since I am in a way of quoting verses, I will give you three out of Walsh's famous Ode to King William:—

Nor think it a sufficient cause
To punish men by penal laws
For not believing right.

To the same prelate he subsequently wrote:—

"The piece of calico which you sent White, is extremely good and fine. Mind your weaving an spinning, and lay aside your politics; the former will enrich you; but, take my word for it, you will never be better for the latter. I wish I could see your great politicians labouring for the good of their country, like Hercules, with distaffs, instead of Septennial bills in their hands. What, and so be de-

pendent upon England? says Mr. Lucas. Yes, I hope so; for when Ireland is no longer dependent upon England, the Lord have mercy upon it!"

One of Chesterfield's latest letters, addressed to the Earl of Arran, contains a review of his Irish administration too interesting to be omitted:—

"Your Lordship says that you thought I looked coldly upon you for having proposed, in the House of Commons, the augmentation of four or five thousand men. Now I assure your lordship, upon my honour, that I had no such intention: it is true I disapproved of the motion, which I thought at that time unnecessary, and I think time has justified my opinion. I had always a great contempt for that extravagant attempt of the Pretender, which, though it scattered shameful terrors both here and in Ireland, I own never gave me one moment's uneasiness. In all events, I thought the affair must be decided one way or the other before the troops proposed could be raised and tolerably disciplined; but I well knew, that the half-pay of the officers would remain for many years a burden upon Ireland, which I was unfashionable enough to consider, and to prevent if I could; but I had not the least reason to be displeased with whoever proposed or voted for that question; on the contrary, it flattered my vanity in giving me the nomination of all the officers, and might have flattered my purse still more, had I been an infamous corrupt rascal. I never tampered with votes, nor ever made the least distinction in my reception of the Members of either House upon account of their political conduct; nor indeed could I well do it, for your Lordship well knows that I met with no difficulty or opposition during my short administration: you all judged favourably, and give me leave to add justly, of my intentions, and in consideration of them excuse my errors. When I returned from Ireland, I thought that the weight of property was too unequally divided between the two Houses, and preponderated too much on the side of the House of Commons; and, therefore, I laid a list before the late King of six commoners, of the largest property and the best characters, to be made peers, in which list I give your lordship my word and honour you was one: the king approved of it; but fate soon disposed of me in another department, much against my inclinations. Since that time I have ever heartily, though ineffectually wished the peace and prosperity of Ireland, and shall always value myself upon its good opinion. I ask pardon for this tedious letter, relative only to times past; but I plead the privilege of seventy-six years of age, which is always apt to be garrulous."

It is not our purpose here to enter on any general review of the course of English policy towards Ireland. We agree with Lord Chesterfield that a far more important consideration is the policy of the Irish towards themselves. The trade of Ireland depends for its prosperity on the tradesmen of Ireland, not on Houses of Commons or Lords, whether at this or the other side of St. George's Channel. The commerce of Ireland depends upon Irish merchants, the manufactures of Ireland upon Irish manufacturers. What Goldsmith has said of the feelings is equally true of the material interests of a country:—

How small, of all that human hearts endure,
That part which laws or kings can cause or cure.

No one can visit Ireland without becoming aware that the industrial resources of the country are to a great extent undeveloped, and no economist can doubt that they are likely to remain so, while people look to some conjuration or mighty magic of legislation, instead of to their own ingenuity, industry and integrity. An act of Parliament, so far back as the days of the Plantagenets, declared that "idle men" were the great nuisance of Ireland; there has been much improvement since, but there is still a sad lack of working men, of men aiming at tangible and visible results, instead of the remote contingencies of favourite speculations in every grade of Irish society. Lord Chesterfield proved himself a true friend to Ireland by pointing out this evil in his own day, and his example is a

precedent which no one in the present age need hesitate to follow. We have only to add, that Lord Mahon has performed his editorial duties with ability and discretion; no opinions are obtruded, or even insinuated, under the cover of dissertation.

The White Slave; or, the Russian Peasant-Girl.
By the Author of 'Revelations of Russia.'
3 vols. Colburn.

To those who love the truculent, the mysterious, the highly-spiced in fiction, 'The White Slave' will be a fairy gift—gold, moreover, which will not turn into stone when the first moments of surprise and curiosity have gone by. That the writer does not precisely know what to do with his energies, is (taken in one point of view) a proof of their variety and vivacity. He must learn mastery, arrangement, reserve, ere he can claim the praise due to a novelist. His tale is too like the state of society it describes; it wants gradation; there is no proportion nor keeping. We will not here argue how far the *Russo-phobia*, which is its *animus*, is justifiable or otherwise, having on former occasions treated that question; and knowing that nothing endures so long as Prejudice, or so readily finds an audience and an answer in human passion. Laying, then, the moral aside, and merely considering 'The White Slave' as a work of fiction, we may observe, that Serfidom is the strong and sharp rack on which the author is pleased to stretch pity and sympathy; and its horrors are brought home to ourselves, by assuming the possibility of one human being having an absolute right over another, as refined and accomplished as himself. It was this idea which gave strength to the first three acts of that clever play, 'The Provost of Bruges.' Here it is elaborated, with a vengeance; life in Russia offering precisely those details and combinations which heighten the climax.

The tale begins with a quarrel at the Grand Opera at Paris, in which a Russian nobleman—double to M. Eugène Sue's Count Lugarto—insults a mysterious beauty, and is challenged by her protector (afterwards husband), also a Russian,—the rage of both combatants being mesmerized into sleep by the intervention of a mutual enemy—whom we perceive at once to be a government officer. Prince Ivan Isakoff and Mr. Mattheus are, however, once again thrown together under other circumstances. The former suddenly becomes heir to the vast Russian possessions of his father; the latter, by the same sudden decease, fails to gain his promised emancipation from serfdom, having been one of the old prince's benevolent "experiments." He is now, therefore, with his wife, in the power of a very demon. The serf, Mattheus, too, has a sister, Nadeshta, who, of course, becomes an object of importance in Prince Ivan's schemes. A young Frenchman, the Count de Montressan, who had known some of the party in Paris, is introduced to play the part of deliverer. He is intimate with Prince Ivan; and some of the revels in the Russian palace at which he assists (in particular, the *ekra* party) are described with a savage gusto, and a minute finish, which would do no discredit to M. Eugène Sue. As the author of 'The White Slave' professes an unbounded admiration for that novelist's 'Latreumont,' he will regard this as high praise. We presently see, however, that though Prince Ivan and the Count Montressan are the best possible friends, the former endeavours to mislead, to poison, and to ruin the latter. After some glimpses of metropolitan life,—illustrated by the bitter comments of a poet, the one free tongue in Russia, sanctioned to speak out, as the King's Fool used to be,—Prince Ivan takes the Frenchman down to his estates. There Count Montressan falls in love with Nadeshta, and becomes inspired with the generous purpose

of rescuing her, her brother and her sister-in-law from their horrible situation. Of course, so soon as Prince Ivan becomes aware of this, "his sentiments of the most distinguished consideration" (as the diplomatists have it) are increased to an extravagance of dangerous affection. He endeavours to decoy his guest into a quaking bog, when the two are out on a shooting party; and an escape scene ensues, somewhat too long drawn out, in which Horace is only just saved. Then he piques the Frenchman into throwing dice for those he wishes to rescue—a French device of benevolence, we must say, worthy, in truth, of Sue's 'Prince of Gerolstein.' Horace all but wins, but the demon incarnate has been too subtle. Availing himself of a loop-hole, the reserve is found precisely to embrace that for which the frantic game was undertaken. They throw again—the Frenchman is beggared; but the dice prove to have been loaded. Violent as this scene is, it is wrought up with vigour. We will not further follow out the strife between Good and Evil, save to say, that the tale is brought to a close in a manner at once fragmentary and unsatisfactory. We cannot part from it, however, without noticing the introduced figure of the Grand Duke Constantine,—obviously an H.B. portrait, but still coarse, forcible and self-consistent. An English groom, who is intended, we presume, to administer the relief of broad humour to the book, is a failure. Further, the tale has a touch of the mystical, which will be found "particularly consolatory" in these days, when religious opinions seem shuffled like counters, and petted as toys vastly more entertaining than the "Mechlin or Colberten" of the last century. It gives us a fearful glimpse of those enthusiasts, whose rhapsodies were in some degree revealed to the world in Madame Krudener. The novel, in short, is too full of forcible and peculiar things, to be laid by when once begun. The class to which it belongs is not the best:—and the author has power to do something better and permanent.

A Grammar of the Cree Language; with which is combined an Analysis of the Chippeway Dialect. By Joseph Howse, Esq. Rivingtons.

THIS extraordinary production (which is printed under the auspices of two societies,—the Geographical and the Church Missionary) is likely to be of more value to the philologist than any book that we have seen for many years. Substantially, the language of which it treats belongs to all the Indian tribes, not only of British North America, but of the continent, from Pennsylvania in the south, to Churchill River (Hudson's Bay) in the north; from the Atlantic and Labrador in the east, to the Mississippi, and (so far as the British possessions are concerned) to the Rocky Mountains in the west. The Chippeway is evidently but a different dialect of the same language, and like the Cree, derived from the Algonquin, which may be termed the mother of a great family of languages. On such subjects, it is impossible for us to have too many books. If, like our author, and like the Rev. Mr. Jones who has translated the Gospel of St. John into Chippeway, other residents and other missionaries in different parts of the vast American Continent, would sit down to compile grammars and vocabularies, or to translate the sacred books into languages still unknown to Europeans, we should not remain in such thick darkness as to the affinity and migrations of people. This darkness is the more to be lamented, as unless it be speedily removed, it must remain for ever. Many tribes, with their dialects and traditions, are fast disappearing: very soon, there will scarcely remain a trace of their existence. Not merely tribes, but numerous associates of tribes,—mighty empires, with their speech, arts, man-

ners, and more the continent oblivion of that the in to us. No a Moravi wilds, with burning i torious guard for I we want. a volume our gratit the novel It is a ion that t construct to set at most poli Cree. It of which structure as readers is neverth tion has a So wond to concei it, and th a human to regard enough; Not only word, but the genit to the ger Yes; and also be m moods, v istence in Thus the quentativ expressed ion. Fro posed tha might be which is difficult yet in a would inf their form class of v to the res If this notice wi it will not existing a Familiar to Con By Jus WHATV and the p occupy as of his rel dency of the most practical man, in a We need ture and of this sta us we hav of letters chemistry facturing as glass, suggestio disease, t of land or do not v volume v

ners, and institutions have passed away, from more than one region of that interminable continent; we should be sorry to see the same oblivion engulf others. But we cannot hope that the information desired will ever be supplied to us. Now and then a Wesleyan, now and then a Moravian, may venture into the untrodden wilds, with the torch of civilization and religion burning in his hand; but these otherwise meritorious men being in general without much regard for learning, are not likely to give us what we want. It is rare, indeed, that we have such a volume as the present from any quarter; and our gratitude therefore must be proportionate to the novelty.

It is a very common, but very erroneous opinion that the barbaric tongues are simple in their construction. They are often so complicated as to set at nought the artificial structure of the most polished. This is peculiarly true of the Cree. It would be difficult to name any language of which the inflexions are more varied, the structure more elaborate, or more regular. Much as readers may be surprised at the assurance, it is nevertheless true, that the language in question has a mechanism as wonderful as it is new. So wonderful indeed it is, that we are at a loss to conceive how barbarians could have formed it, and that Mr. Howse is unwilling to allow it a human origin. We all have been accustomed to regard the Latin construction as complicated enough; but it may hide itself before the Cree. Not only do the subject and verb form a single word, but all the cases,—or at least all except the genitive—are in the same verb, in addition to the gender and number. A verb with genders! Yes; and with adjectives too; and there must also be added a most complicated system of moods, varying the forms of action and of existence in a manner inconceivable to Europeans. Thus the *transitive, permanent, continuous, frequentative, intensive, reduplicative* actions, are expressed by corresponding varieties of inflexion. From this brief allusion, it might be supposed that the Cree, the Chippeway, &c. (and it might be said also of the Greenland language, which is a branch of the Esquimaux), must be difficult of attainment. No doubt it is so, but yet in a degree much less than a European would infer. These languages are so regular in their forms, that when the construction of one class of words is understood, it becomes a key to the rest.

If this curious book should not attain much notice with the people for whom it is designed, it will not be overlooked in Germany,—the only existing storehouse of philology.

Familiar Letters on Chemistry and its Relation to Commerce, Physiology, and Agriculture.
By Justus Liebig. Taylor & Walton.

WHATEVER may be the dispute between chemists and the public as to the position Liebig ought to occupy as a man of science, there can be no doubt of his relative superiority in the practical tendency of his mind. He has successfully pursued the most abstract principles of chemistry in their practical application to the daily occupations of man, in almost every branch of human exertion. We need but quote his larger works on agricultural and organic chemistry as proof of the truth of this statement, and in the little volume before us we have an additional illustration. A series of letters on the application of the principles of chemistry to the improving the mode of manufacturing many of the articles of daily use, such as glass, soap, sulphuric acid, sugar, &c., and suggestions for improving the treatment of disease, the feeding of cattle, and the manuring of land on chemical principles. Even those who do not understand chemistry will read this volume with interest, and we recommend it to

all who take an interest in the productive resources of our own island, as pointing out in what way the labour of England can be most profitably employed. We would also draw attention to the views of the Professor on political economy, which seem to us as sound as they are liberal and enlightened. As a specimen, we extract the following passage from a letter on the trade in sulphur:—

"It is no exaggeration to say, we may fairly judge of the commercial prosperity of a country from the amount of sulphuric acid it consumes. Reflecting upon the important influence which the price of sulphur exercises upon the cost of production of bleached and printed cotton stuffs, soap, glass, &c., and remembering that Great Britain supplies America, Spain, Portugal, and the East, with these, exchanging them for raw cotton, silk, wine, raisins, indigo, &c., &c., we can understand why the English Government should have resolved to resort to war with Naples, in order to abolish the sulphur monopoly, which the latter power attempted recently to establish. Nothing could be more opposed to the true interests of Sicily than such a monopoly; indeed, had it been maintained a few years, it is highly probable that sulphur, the source of her wealth, would have been rendered perfectly valueless to her. Science and industry form a power to which it is dangerous to present impediments. It was not difficult to perceive that the issue would be the entire cessation of the exportation of sulphur from Sicily. In the short period the sulphur monopoly lasted, fifteen patents were taken out for methods to obtain back the sulphuric acid used in making soda. Admitting that these fifteen experiments were not perfectly successful, there can be no doubt it would ere long have been accomplished. But then, in gypsum, (sulphate of lime), and in heavy-spar, (sulphate of barytes), we possess mountains of sulphuric acid; in galena, (sulphate of lead), and in iron pyrites, we have no less abundance of sulphur. The problem is, how to separate the sulphuric acid, or the sulphur, from these native stores. Hundreds of thousands of pounds weight of sulphuric acid were prepared from iron pyrites, while the high price of sulphur consequent upon the monopoly lasted. We should probably ere long have triumphed over all difficulties, and have separated it from gypsum. The impulse has been given, the possibility of the process proved, and it may happen in a few years that the inconsiderate financial speculation of Naples may deprive her of that lucrative commerce. In like manner Russia, by her prohibitory system, has lost much of her trade in tallow and potash. One country purchases only from absolute necessity from another, which excludes her own productions from her markets. Instead of the tallow and linseed oil of Russia, Great Britain now uses palm oil and coconut oil of other countries. Precisely analogous is the combination of workmen against their employers, which has led to the construction of many admirable machines for superseding manual labour. In commerce and industry every imprudence carries with it its own punishment; every oppression immediately and sensibly recoils upon the head of those from whom it emanates."

OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

Oxford University Statutes, translated by G. R. M. Ward, Esq. M.A. Vol. I., containing 'The Caroline Code; or, Laudian Statutes,' promulgated A.D. 1636. —Until the present work is completed, and especially until we have before us the statutes of our own days, for the improvement of discipline and the advancement of learning at Oxford, we forbear to enter into the wide and important question of which the work is suggestive. Full justice could not be done to it without the New Examination Statute, which we presume is to appear in the next volume. In the meantime, we thank Mr. Ward for bringing the subject before the public eye, though he would have performed his task much more satisfactorily, had he accompanied his translation with such explanations as all but Oxford men must require for the right understanding of that subject, and which even they require, if they have left the University many years. A succession of statutory regulations is of little value, unaccompanied by remarks as to their efficacy. Nobody knows better than Mr. Ward what have been

suffered to fall into desuetude—how many are, at least, partially violated—how many are practically disregarded. Perhaps, in another volume, the translator intends to favour us with some information as to these necessary points.

Glances at Life, by Cornelius Webbe.—A series of light magazine papers. In our opinion, everything in the shape of a book should have some unity and definite purpose; but as all do not agree with us, we will add, that the humour of these papers is quiet, gentle, and harmless. Mr. Webbe indulges in one essay of a somewhat different character from the rest of the work.—'On the Poems of Drummond of Hawthornden.' As we agree in his general judgment, we only refer to the circumstance to show how hopeless it is to put a stop to error by disproving it; for here again we hear the old story, that "Ben Jonson could forego the daily delectations and drinking-bouts of the Devil Tavern, and, at the age of forty-five, travel on foot from London to Hawthornden to visit Drummond 'for his genius' sake;" whereas Hawthornden was the last place he visited.

A Sketch of the Military History of Great Britain, by the Rev. G. R. Gleig, M.A., Chaplain-General of the Army, &c.—This manual, from the pen of one who wore the red coat before he put on the black gown, cannot fail to be read with interest, and perhaps with profit, by military men,—by such especially as have neither time to read, nor money to purchase, larger works. It deserves to be widely circulated in that branch of the service for which it is peculiarly designed. Nor is it without value to the general historical reader,—and particularly to the reader of our own history.

Days and Nights in the East, by Miss Plumley.—This book professes to be compiled from the original notes of a recent traveller through Egypt, Arabia-Petrea, Syria, Turkey, and Greece; but Miss Matilda Plumley herself assumes the responsibility of "the remarks, reflections, or opinions, arising out of the subject." Credit is not taken for novelty; a "circumstantial account" is all the aim, whether of things old or things new, for the benefit, it would seem, of "intending travellers." The field has been so frequently reaped, that only menial gleanings could be expected in a work of this kind. Pompey's Pillar, the Pyramids, the Sphinx, the gorgeous sunsets at old Cairo have ceased to be wondered at—the Nile has been robbed of its mystery—the Bedouins no longer excite alarm—the temples of Denderah, Karnak, Isis, and Medinet Abou, have no more secrets to unfold—the Obelisk of Luxor has been brought to our own door—the Tombs of the Kings have been explored—the Fountain of Marah has been tasted—the Red Sea and the Desert have been crossed—and the Oriental traveller's occupation, if not gone, has dwindled to a triviality. As a kind of synopsis of what may be expected on the route indicated, Miss Plumley's work, however, will not be without its utility.

Slavery in the United States; a Letter to the Hon. Daniel Webster, by M. B. Sampson.—An energetic appeal in favour of Abolition, made at the proper time—namely, when the Texan question is so much absorbing public attention, that the friends of freedom—"still unhappily, a minority in the republic"—stand the chance of being neglected.

England Won, a Poem; by J. G. H. Bourne.—We are like Cassandra—our warnings are not believed by the poets who still devote their rhymes to themes from which we have endeavoured to turn away their attention; yet what success have they found in their appeal from our judgment to that of the "pensive public"? If our aged poet-laureate would give us a poem just now on the Norman Conquest, it would not be read; but if a young poet would give us graphic sketches of human life in the valley where he dwells, they would have an interest for us, even if displaying no great genius. Mr. Bourne's lines are, generally, well measured and smooth; but we cannot find in them any signs of power enough to awaken a poetic interest in the battle of Hastings.

The Wars of Jehovah, in Heaven, Earth, and Hell: in nine books, by T. Hawkins, Esq., with eleven highly finished engravings, by J. Martin, Esq., K.L.—A book magnificently printed and illustrated, but both in matter and manner, lying beyond the pale of ordinary criticism. It professes to be a theological poem, taking in the whole action of Providence from

the Fall of the Angels, to the restoration of all things, yet recognizes no system of theology, and exhibits the writer's imagination in a condition of freedom incompatible with law, and only to be described as a state of poetic frenzy. We say, *poetic frenzy*—for though the punctuation, grammar, measure, and logic of many parts of this book exist in most admired disorder, yet there are passages, lines, and phrases, which are certainly indicative of a poet, and of a student of our old poets.—Some of these may be quoted:—

— the uplands grey
Rising to sight like Hermes crowned with trees,
Or like Madeira from the misty sea,
Orange and citron crowned—
These twin as Pylades and Orestes were
Exact alike: Narcissus when he saw
His image in the lake no better saw
Than these each in the other; and they loved
Even as the sons of Saul and Jesse loved.

All heaven, the angels, all the air-born sprites
Veiled lighter than Andromeda upon
Her bridal-day, or Hebe at the feast
Dodonian—

— Out it gushed
That music, and o'erflowing reach'd the Round
That girdled all the universe; it sunk
Into the soul, as light into the sea,
Windless and waveless, with delight and joy.

How comes it that twenty consecutive lines could not be quoted from this work without exciting distaste, or even ridicule? We answer, poetry cannot exist apart from philosophy; the world's greatest poets have been also its best logicians. The epic muse requires mental discipline. The energy, perseverance and imagination of the poet of 'The Wars of Jehovah,' are all enlisted in the service of the wildest mysticism. Matter there is in these verses,—but it is left floundering in chaos, tossing and beating in confusion—awaiting the intelligence that should reduce it to form and order. The poet, it should be recollected, is an artist, subject himself to rules, and imposing such upon his work. Imagination, divorced from reason, may startle by the eccentricity of its productions, but can never attract by their beauty; such births are monstrous, and, even where they compel our wonder, fail to command our praise.

Report of Lectures on the Natural History of Plants yielding Food, with Remarks on the Function of Digestion, by Edwin Lankester, M.D.—A course of four lectures originally delivered at the Manchester Royal Institution, and reported at the time in the *Manchester Guardian*. They form an outline of the subject of dietetics, and have been reprinted with this object in view.

Species Filicum; being Descriptions of all known Ferns, by Sir W. J. Hooker. Parts I. and II.—Few families of plants were, till recently, in a state of more perfect confusion than that of the ferns. The characters of species were only imperfectly understood, and genera, species, and varieties were confounded under one name. Sir Wm. Hooker has devoted much time to the examination and illustration of these plants, and no one could be better qualified for the task of arranging existing materials. The two parts before us contain delineations of many of the species, which will assist the student in his study of this family. We should, however, have been glad to have seen more attention paid to the fruit of the various species; and illustrations of their microscopic characters would have added to the value of the work. As it is, we are thankful for the prospect of having a work of standard reference for the whole family.

LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

Aranea Entomologica, by J. O. Westwood, Esq. Vol. II. with 48 coloured plates, royal 18mo. 2l. 2s. cl.
Astrolagus's Daughter, a Novel, by Rose Ellen Hendriks, 3 vols. pt. 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. bds.
Benevolence in Punishment; or, Transportation made Reformatory, royal 12mo. 4s. 6d. cl.
Bennett (Dr.) on Diseases of the Uterus, post 8vo. 6s. cl.
Blair's Sermons, new edit. 1 vol. 8vo. (Cassell) 9s. cl. lettered.
Bray's (Eliza) Travels and Romances, Vol. III. 'The Protestant,' 8vo. 6s. cl.
Cobb's (Ingram) Descriptive New Testament for Schools and Families, with Explanatory Notes, Engravings, and Maps, 12mo. 5s. cl. gilt.
Daubigny's History of the Reformation translated, first portion, med. 8vo. 10s. 6d. cl. (Whittaker's Popular Library.)
Evans's (Rev. W. E.) The Songs of the Birds, 8vo. 3s. 6d. cl.
Fells on the Use of the Cricket Bat, 10 plates, 4to. 12s. cl. gilt.
Foster's (John) Essay on Popular Ignorance, new edit. 8vo. 5s. cl.
History in all Ages, 13th edit. 12mo. 7s. cl.
Hodgson's (Christ.) Account of the Augmentation of Small Livings by Queen Anne's Bounty, 2nd edit. royal 8vo. 10s. 6d. cl.
Hornebeck's Daily Exercises, (Practical Christian's Library) 24mo. 9d. swd.
Inquiry into Prevailing Notions on Freedom of the Will, by the late Rev. Jonathan Edwards, new edit. 8vo. 2s. cl.

Inquiry into the Physiological and Medicinal Properties of the Aconitum Napellus, by Alexander Fleming, M.D. 8vo. 5s. cl.
Letters and Passages from the Life of the late Rev. Robt. Anderson, by the Hon. Mrs. Anderson, 12mo. 6s. cl.
Lingard's History of England, complete in 13 vols. 8vo. 3l. 5s. cl.
Michelet's History of France, translated by G. H. Smith, Part III. med. 8vo. 3s. 6d. swd. (Whittaker's Popular Library.)
Michelet's History of France, Vol. I. med. 8vo. 10s. 6d. cl. (Whittaker's Popular Library.)
Morning Exercises at Cripplegate, by Nichols, Vol. VI. with Index, 8vo. 12s. cl.
McFarlan's (Rev. James) Version of the Prophecies of Ezekiel, 8vo. 12s. cl.
Passages from the Life of a Daughter at Home, 8vo. 2s. 6d. cl.
Pictorial Plan of Edinburgh, with Descriptive Key, 5s. cl. gilt, or in Morocco case 7s.
Punjaub (The), being a Brief Account of the Country of the Sikhs, by Lieut.-Col. Steinbach, with Map, post 8vo. 5s. cl.
Recollections of Four Years' Service in the East, by Captain B. Scill, 8vo. 10s. cl.
Shareholders' Memorandum Book, 12mo. 4s. roan.
Sure Anchor (The); or, Salvation Inseparable from Regeneration, by George Albert Rogers, M.A. 8vo. 2s. 6d. cl.
Thom's (Alexander) Inquiry into the Nature and Course of Storms in the Indian Ocean, with diagrams, demy 8vo. 12s. cl.
Whitehall; or, the Days of Charles the First, an Historical Romance, by the author of 'Whitechapel,' 3 vols. post 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. bds.

THE SONG OF THE IVY.

"Ha, ha!" laughed the Ivy, "let poets sing
Of the oak, and crown him the forest king;
Let them sing of the elm, for his lordly height,
And the birch, for his bark, so smooth and white;
Let them praise the chestnut, for majesty,
And the willow, for beauty,—but what care I?
Beauteous, and stately, and strong, and tall,—
I conquer them all—I conquer them all!"

"Ha, ha!" laughed the Ivy, "let men uprear
Castles and palaces far and near;
Pile upon pile let their fabrics rise,
Darkening the earth and mocking the skies,
Lifting their turrets so haughtily,
Boasting their grandeur,—but what care I?
Buttress, and bastion, and topmost wall—
I conquer them all—I conquer them all!"

"Ha, ha!" laughed the Ivy, "old Time to me
Hath given the glory and mastery!
So poets may sing, if it like them well,
From early matins till vesper bell,
And others may list to their minstrelsy,—
I've a song of my own,—so what care I?
Beauteous, and stately, and strong, and tall—
I conquer them all—I conquer them all!"

T. WESTWOOD.

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

Mr. Wyse failed, last week, to obtain from the House of Commons an Address to the Crown for the establishment and maintenance of a museum of national antiquities, in conjunction with a commission for the conservation of national monuments. The importance of such a collection, accessible to the artist, as a necessary page in the Englishman's study of the history of Art—a page about to be called into more especial requisition by the nationality attributed to the decoration of the Houses of Parliament, and likely to come into general reading, under that example—and a reference to the valuable objects which have been effected in France, under such a commission, for the exhibition of antiquity, and the preservation of its decaying records—were plausible arguments in support of such a motion; but had the usual fate of all such arguments addressed to a minister who, with a tolerably large property and income, has yet a multitude of political mouths to feed, and no especial preference for Art. Still, the refusal, in such cases, of the bread of art, need not be accompanied by the offer of a stone; nor need Sir James Graham have indulged himself, on the occasion, with that logical diversion which consists in "returning" the petitioner's argument to his teeth, "to plague him." That pleasant minister amused himself by referring the appetite for antiquarian instruction to those specimens and collections which, as he said, exist in abundance within the stone walls of many of the great private mansions scattered throughout England (he might almost as effectually have referred the hungry to their well-provisioned larders); and, in answer to that part of the motion which requested that Government would take the fading antiquities of England under its care, he informed Mr. Wyse that Government did not take those objects under its protection. Why, Mr. Wyse knew that very well—and was there with his motion, for that precise reason. He need not have asked Sir James to do what he had already done. It was exactly because such matters are left, at present, to the precarious and insufficient efforts of individuals, that the former demanded that the

nation should adopt them. "Why don't you?"—"Because I don't"—is a school-boy form of logic of long standing, but scarcely approved in the upper school, and certainly below the dignity of a ministerial argument. It is, nevertheless, like the same school-boy's squirt, a baffling weapon of fence. There is no disputing with a logician of this class. A man who takes the very ground of your argument for an answer to it, *bothers* you at the moment, and walks off, under cover of the perplexity, as successfully as if he had hit it with a reason. You are not hurt, nor your argument either; but you feel that you have had cold water flung in your face.—What is wanted here, is, that Government should provide, in a systematic and comprehensive manner, for the maintenance, all over the country, of such monuments as may preserve to the nation, in historical series, the evidences and illustrations of manners, events, and arts; and should assemble, into some one central collection, such objects and specimens of antiquity as may serve for a digested index to the whole: so that the artist, antiquarian, poet, historian, and all whom it may concern, may have free access to refer to the latter, or read the enlarged text of the former, as and when their several purposes may require. All this is without reference to the intrinsic beauty of many of the objects themselves, continually disappearing, for want of such guardianship. To the uses of such a national museum there is little doubt that many of the private collections, to which the minister alluded, would be freely contributed; by men who will not, however, let the public pour through their private homes in the same liberal intention,—and can least of all be expected to do so in a country where, even to such of its monumental glories as it *does* foster and preserve, the people have no admission but on payment of the "silver penny."

A new railway project is announced, of some novelty in principle; which, if successful in its application, is likely to be attended with important results. A company has been organized to connect the Blackwall railway with the west end of London, partly by means of an embankment along the river, and partly by a new street nearly as wide as Regent-street, running parallel with, and between Cannon-street and Thames-street, from Blackfriars Bridge to Whitechapel. It is proposed that the railway shall be carried along the middle of this new street, upon a framework of iron girders, 18 feet in height, supported by columns along the side pavement, resembling in effect those of the Quadrant, and leaving beneath a roadway of corresponding width for the ordinary traffic. The object is to open building frontages throughout the whole line, of a saleable value sufficient nearly to defray the cost of purchasing the inferior property required to be removed. It is calculated that the new street will create 10,800 feet of building frontage, which if let at 2l. 2s. per foot, and the ground rents afterwards sold at thirty years purchase, will produce 680,000l.—an amount almost equal, it is said, to the estimated outlay:—but in Moorgate-street and Gresham-street, the price obtained for building plots was often, we are informed, 4l. and 5l. per foot, instead of 2l. 2s., and a larger sum than 680,000l. may therefore be realized. The atmospheric system is to be adopted,—so that the carriages on the railway platform above, will travel with less noise than an omnibus or wagon on the roadway below. The new Epsom Atmospheric line crosses the Croydon upon a similar framework to that proposed, but of wood instead of iron; so that the practicability of the scheme is only a question of cost. The plan, if carried out, with due regard to economical considerations, promises to give a great impulse to structural improvements generally. Railway companies, when they require termini in towns, will give the public the benefit of new streets; and new thoroughfares will be opened where they are much required, without that aid from government which it is often fruitless to ask or expect.

Our readers know that our argument for popular education has included the necessity of such special instruction as may fit the masses for the particular accidents of industrial life by which they are surrounded, and tend to the full development of the varying resources of various neighbourhoods. We see, with satisfaction, therefore, the attempts making to establish Wernerian schools in the Welsh principality, for the study of mineralogy and mining; in

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districts that yield largely to the wealth of England, by the labour which such knowledge as they profess to give should lighten and direct. The annual value of iron produced in the whole of Great Britain, is equal to eight millions sterling; and of this sum, five millions are produced in Wales alone,—an amount equal to the produce of the whole of continental Europe. A knowledge, on the part of the workman, of the properties and accidents of the materials in which he works is important as well to economy of production as to the diminution of the perils amid which the miner pursues his laborious calling. Mr. Solomon Gibson, a brother, we believe, of Mr. Gibson, the sculptor-academician, is an active promoter of this good cause; and to his efforts and views we call the attention of the friends of the principality—and that of the government.

Several members of the Jewish and General Literary Institution, noticed heretofore, have submitted a plan to its committee, the object of which is to collect materials towards the history and statistics of the Jews in Great Britain, from their first appearance in the island. A sum of at least 100*l.* is to be subscribed, for five years,—100*l.* per annum to be the salary of a competent scholar, who is to devote four years exclusively to the collecting of materials, both from printed books and from the MS. records of the realm. As the former are to include the Rabbinical writings, the scholar to be selected must not only be fully conversant with the middle-age Latin and Norman-French, but also with the compound idiom known under the name of Rabbinical Hebrew. The materials thus collected are to be deposited with the Literary Institution, and to be open to the inspection and study of all persons who may wish to compete for the prize of 100*l.*, which is to be awarded, in the sixth year, to the author of the best history of the Jews in Great Britain. Foreign scholars who may wish to compete for the prize, are to be supplied with copies of the materials free of any expense.

The third Annual Conversazione of the Institute of the Fine Arts was held, on the 28th instant, at Willis's Rooms, and very numerously attended—ladies being, this year, for the first time, amongst the invited guests. The display of works of art was numerous and interesting. There were not many pictures by the old masters; but amongst those of our own modern school, we noticed an early landscape by Turner, and two landscapes by Wilkie, the contributions of Mr. Denny. A small picture by Mr. Huskisson (a new name in Art), exhibiting the fairy world of Oberon and Titania, and full of the feeling and fancy of the subject, attracted attention. Goodall exhibited a picture, the Interior of an Irish Cabin; and Mr. Harrison, a large and fine water-colour painting, from the 'Midsummer Night's Dream,' treated in a manner full of taste and originality. We noticed, also, a series of eight drawings, by the late Thomas Sibson, from English history—embodying not merely particular scenes, but phases, of English life and character:—*'A Descent of the Danes upon the English Coast; 'A School in the Time of Alfred;—(a drawing of high character, for conception and execution); 'A Saxon Town; 'Saxon Hospitality; 'The Normans' return in Triumph; 'The Baron's Hall in the Time of Chaucer; 'Trial by Combat; and 'Cash Payment' (a Saturday night in a factory). There were some splendid specimens of German engraving, from designs by Kaulbach, in illustration of Goethe, and unpublished. In sculpture, Mr. Foley contributed two spirited sketches in plaster, together with a reduced copy in bronze of his 'Youth at the Stream,'—and Mr. Bell, a bronze copy of his 'Eagle Slayer.' The portfolios of drawings and sketches were numerous; and articles of virtu, such as bronzes, cups, missals, jewels of the middle ages, carvings on ivory and wood, armour, &c., abounded, and were many of them of great rarity and beauty.*

It is with regret that we announce the death of Mr. Andrew Picken,—the worthy son of a worthy father, of whom many of our readers will have a pleasant recollection in the lighter walks of fiction—and himself an artist of great promise, which disease long baffled, and death has at last broken "to the hope." Some years ago, Mr. Picken sought to escape from the foe who has finally conquered, amid the soft airs and enchanted breezes of that

paradise of the consumptive, Madeira; and brought thence, as our readers may remember, some of the finest and boldest sketches of its remarkable scenery. But into that charmed region his enemy followed him, in the guise of his art; and, with the sketches, he brought home a worse thing—the gift of the exposure which had sought, and the toil which had produced, them. He has died, at the age of thirty years.

We understand that Mr. John Horsley has been elected by the Committee of the School of Design to succeed Mr. Herbert. Considering all the circumstances of Mr. Herbert's retirement, the factions in the committee and the ruptures with the pupils, we doubt if the office of drawing-master can be considered as an easy or enviable one.

We have pleasure in recording all those instances in which our own Government awards any of the honours to scientific, literary, or artistic distinction, amongst ourselves, which are held to be its right in many of the Continental nations; and this is a pleasure to which we the more readily lend ourselves, inasmuch as such notices make no very serious encroachment upon our space. We must not omit, then, to record the knighthood which has been conferred on Mr. Fellows (now Sir Charles)—as a worthy pendant to the previous instance of the same dignity bestowed on Mr. (Sir Robert) Schomburgk.

The recent arrivals from America bring, as most of our readers will have seen, distressing accounts of an awful calamity which has befallen the city of Quebec, in the destruction of one-third of its extent, by conflagration. No less than 1,650 dwellings are in ashes, and 12,000 people left without food or shelter. The details are of the most painful character. So rapid was the catastrophe, that nothing could be saved but the life which fled before the fiery pursuer, and too often in vain. Men who had gained what they believed to be places of safety, distant from the burning quarter which they had left, found themselves suddenly surrounded by the flame, as if it had leaped thither, and their means of escape cut off. Every class of society has been reached by the wide-spreading calamity; and numbers, who rose in the morning possessed of competence, saw the night fall down upon them beggars. The terrors of a coming Canadian winter are added to these horrors,—and, meantime, the dread of plague, from the crowding into narrow spaces of this mass of destitution and distress. The city has done what she can to relieve her sufferers—and Montreal has helped her: but the case is, as she declares, one utterly beyond the resources of such a community, even in its best circumstances; and she makes an earnest appeal to the mother-country, for aid.

Miss Cushman's success with the London public has, it should seem, tempted others of the family to adventure for a share of the fruits of Shakspeare's island. A sister of the prosperous actress has quitted Philadelphia for England, accompanied by her mother.

We regret to learn that Philadelphia has been appointed to a share in those calamities which the Arts have recently had to sustain in the great cities of America. Our readers know that Washington and New York have each lost their theatres by fire, within a very short space of time; and on the 11th of last month, the Academy of Fine Arts, in Philadelphia, fell a victim to the same destroying agent, with a large proportion of the treasures which it contained.

A unique and highly interesting volume has been discovered, by Mr. A. Asher, of Berlin, and by him transferred to the British Museum. It consists of a series of French *Farces, Bergeries, and Moralités*, printed from 1542 to 1548; and even the most instructed of the bibliographers of France, England, and Germany were ignorant of the existence of about fifty-eight of these curious monuments of the manners and customs of the 16th century. The *Bibliothèque Royale* possesses some five or six of these plays only,—the whole of which are in black letter, and printed in the singular size called, "format d'Agenda."

It was stated, last week, in the Chamber of Deputies, in allusion to the imperfect regulations existing at the Bibliothèque Royale, for the loan of its treasures, that no less than twenty thousand of its volumes are lost, and a great number

mutilated. Reference was made, too, to the manuscript of Molière, stolen from that institution in 1825, and recently offered for sale by auction, in Paris, as our readers know. This manuscript the Minister of Public Instruction has never been able to recover, by means of the tribunals, for want of any mark to prove its identity; but, in answer to the complaint of such abuses in an establishment of so much interest, the Chamber was assured that regulations had now been adopted which rendered their future recurrence impossible.—This reminds us of a painful circumstance, which has for some time been a subject of conversation in literary circles,—the formal exclusion of Mr. J. O. Halliwell from the library of the British Museum. We have hitherto refrained from all allusion to the subject; but as a statement has been put forth in one of the Sunday papers, evidently by a friend of Mr. Halliwell's, and as the writer calls on the press to pronounce judgment, we shall not hesitate to say that the explanation there given is unsatisfactory. But on this point our readers shall judge for themselves: "About two or three years ago, Mr. Halliwell, being desirous of raising a small sum of money, submitted a portion of his library, MSS. &c. to public auction, in London. The catalogue was printed some weeks before the sale; and, as Mr. Halliwell and his auctioneer can prove, copies were sent to all the public libraries, and in particular one was sent by the hand of Mr. Halliwell himself to the library of the University of Cambridge. Amongst the MSS. was one of considerable antiquity, and curious as detailing some of the modes used for producing certain tints of coloured glass. The title of the MS., and the nature of its contents, were correctly set forth in the catalogue. The University of Cambridge and the Trustees of the British Museum did not make any purchases at the public sale; but the Trustees of the Museum, afterwards, and at a considerable advance, purchased the MS. we have described, and placed it in their list. There it meets the eye of some Cantab, who recognizes it as a missing MS. of his University library. The University claim it of the Trustees; and the latter refuse to part with it, on the ground that they have come honestly by it. Mr. Halliwell is, of course, appealed to as to where he bought it, and how long he had possession of it. His answer is, that he cannot tell; he has for years been in the habit of haunting old book-stalls, curiosity-shops, &c., in all parts of town and country, and has never been in the habit of noting down the places where he makes his purchases."

ROYAL ACADEMY OF ARTS, TRAFALGAR SQUARE.
THE EXHIBITION OF THE ROYAL ACADEMY IS NOW OPEN.
—Admission, (from Eight o'clock till Seven) 1*s.*; Catalogue, 1*s.*
HENRY HOWARD, R.A., Secretary.

BRITISH INSTITUTION, PALL MALL.
The Gallery with a SELECTION OF PICTURES BY ANCIENT MASTERS and those of the late SIR A. CALLCOTT, R.A., and other deceased British Artists, is OPEN daily, from Ten till Six.
—Admission, 1*s.*; Catalogue, 1*s.*
WILLIAM BARNARD, Keeper.

THE NEW SOCIETY OF PAINTERS IN WATER COLOURS.
THE ELEVENTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION IS NOW OPEN at their GALLERY, FIFTY-THREE, PALL MALL.—Admission, 1*s.*; Catalogue, 6*d.*
JAMES FAHEY, Secretary.

DIORAMA, REGENT'S PARK.—REDUCED PRICE OF ADMITTANCE.—Now OPEN, with a new and highly interesting exhibition, representing the CASTLE and TOWN OF HEIDELBERG (formerly the residence of the Electors Palatine of the Rhine) under the various aspects of Winter and Summer, Mid-day and Evening; and the exterior view of the CATHEDRAL OF NOTRE DAME at Paris, as seen at Sunset and by Moonlight, and which has been so universally admired. Both pictures are painted by Le Chevalier Reaume. Open from 10 till 6. Admittance to view both Pictures—Saloon, 1*s.*; Stalls, 2*s.* as heretofore.

SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY

ROYAL SOCIETY.—June 19.—R. Owen, Esq. V.P. in the chair.—'On the Connexion between the Winds of the St. Lawrence and the Movements of the Barometer,' by W. Kelly, M.D., Surgeon R.N., attached to the Naval Surveying Party on the River St. Lawrence.—The author adduces a great number of observations, which are in opposition to the generally received opinion, that the mercury in the barometer has always a tendency to fall when the wind is strong. During a period of fifteen years passed in the Gulf and River St. Lawrence, he found that the barometer as frequently rises as falls under the prevalence of a strong wind; and that the winds often blew with a greater force with a rising than with a falling barometer. He gives a circumstantial account of the progress and course of various gales which came

under his observation during that period, and from which he infers the existence of a steady connexion between the prevailing winds of this region and the movements of the barometer, and enters into an inquiry into the mode in which that instrument is affected by them. The extensive valley of the St. Lawrence is bounded at its lower part, for a distance of nearly 500 miles, by ranges of hills, rising on each side to a considerable elevation. Within this space the ordinary winds follow the course of the river; and in almost every instance where they approach from windward, the barometer rises with them; and when, on the other hand, the wind approaches from leeward, the barometer not only falls before the arrival of the wind, but continues to fall until it has subsided. An appendix is subjoined, containing extracts from the tabular register of the barometer and winds at various points in the valley of the St. Lawrence, during the years 1834 and 1835, accompanied by remarks on different points deserving notice in particular cases.

'On the Elliptic Polarization of Light by Reflexion from Metallic Surfaces,' by the Rev. Baden Powell. — In a former paper, published in the Philosophical Transactions for 1843, the author gave an account of the observations he had made on the phenomena of elliptic polarization by reflexion from certain metallic surfaces, but with reference only to one class of comparative results. He has since pursued the inquiry into other relations besides those at first contemplated; and the present paper is devoted to the details of these new observations, obtained by varying the inclination of the incident rays and the position of the plane of analyzation, and by employing different metals as the reflecting surfaces. By the application of the undulatory theory of light to the circumstances of the experiments and the resulting phenomena, the law of metallic retardation is made the subject of analytical investigation. A polariscope of peculiar construction, of which a description is given at the conclusion of the paper, was employed in the experiments; and tables are subjoined of the numerical results of the observations.

GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY.—June 23.—Lord Colchester, President, in the chair.—Six new members were elected.—The paper read was 'Considerations against the supposed Existence of a great Sea in the Interior of Australia,' by E. J. Eyre, Esq.—"An opinion," says Mr. Eyre, "very generally prevails, that the continent of Australia is, comparatively speaking, little more than a narrow crust or barrier intervening between an outer and an inner sea. This opinion originated with Capt. Flinders, and is still entertained by Capt. Sturt, Mr. Windsor Earl and others. Mr. Eyre admits that the non-existence, at least as far as we know, of any large river, with the exception of the Murray, discharging itself into the sea, on the eastern, western, or southern coasts, to the southward of a line drawn from Moreton Bay to Shark's Bay, is the strongest argument in favour of the theory of an inland sea; nevertheless other and weighty considerations militate against this idea; and Mr. Eyre has come to the conclusion that the interior of New Holland will be found generally to be of a very low level, to consist of arid sands alternating with many basins of dried up salt lakes or such as are covered only by shallow salt water or mud, as in the case of Lake Torrens; that there may be many detached and even high ranges, as the Gawler Range, interspersed among the arid wastes, and that in the midst of these ranges there may be rich and fertile spots. As far as Mr. Eyre's own personal observation goes, it supports the suggestion thrown out by Capt. Sturt, that Australia was formerly an archipelago of islands, and that their emergence from the sea is a comparative modern event. Be this as it may, Mr. Eyre founds his opinion against the existence of an inland sea, upon the following three circumstances: first, the hot winds, which in South Australia blow constantly from the north, or centre of the continent, and which he compares to the fiery and withering blasts from a heated furnace, and the little probability that such winds have been wafted over a large expanse of water; secondly, the accounts of the natives inhabiting the outskirts of the interior, who have no knowledge of any large body of water inland, either fresh or salt; thirdly, the coincidence observable in the physical appearance, customs, character and pur-

suits of the aborigines at opposite points of the continent, while no such coincidence exists along the intervening line of coast, connecting these points. The development of all the facts contained under three heads, and the mention of others, such as the arrival of parrots from the interior, &c., constituted the mass of Mr. Eyre's paper; but as mere abstracts would break the chain of reasoning adopted by the author, we must content ourselves with saying that, however plausible that reasoning may be, and it certainly has great weight, nothing short of an actual examination of the interior can satisfy us as to the nature of that peculiar country.—It was stated at the meeting that Lieut. Ruxton had arrived safely and in good health at Walwich Bay; that he had hired Hottentots and cattle, and was about to proceed on his exploration to the interior, intending to return by the Cape.

The President announced that the next meeting would be held on the 10th of November.

ASIATIC SOCIETY.—June 21.—Sir G. T. Staunton, Bart., M.P., in the chair.—R. Alcock, Esq., was elected a Corresponding Member.

Mr. A. Bettington, of the Bombay Civil Service, read a paper on certain fossils procured by himself on the Island of Perim, in the Gulf of Cambay; more particularly on a gigantic ruminant, having some affinities to the Sivatherium and the Giraffe. After adverting to former notices of fossils obtained on this island, the writer described its situation in the midst of the gulf stream of Cambay, which separates it from the main land, and deposits large quantities of alluvium brought down by the rivers emptying themselves into it. These rivers, in the present day, in the freshes, transport into the Gulf large trees, and the bodies of oxen, deer, bears, and other animals; and in the great floods of past ages are considered to have brought down and deposited, as now discovered, the remains of ruminants and pachydermata, some extinct and unheard of, others having, in the present day, their living co-generals in the Indian rivers. The bed from which the writer obtained the fossil specimens exhibited is below the usual water mark, and inaccessible except at the ebb of spring tides. A portion only of those obtained were brought to England, the remainder were left in India. The most remarkable of those in this country was a large skull, which is now, by competent judges, pronounced to be the first specimen of a new genus. The mass of conglomerate which contained it weighed about 170lb., and the separation of the skull from near 100lb. of matrix occupied Mr. Bettington many weeks. The skull, on the whole, is well preserved, though a portion has suffered from the action of water. The lines of teeth on the two sides of the palate are unconformable; and it has been conjectured that the head must, at this part, have suffered from violence, but there is no appearance of fracture. For the purposes of comparison, Mr. Bettington had made a close measurement of every part of the Perim fossil, of the sivatherium, and of the skull of the adult giraffe in the British Museum; from all which it appeared that the Perim fossil is the smaller. The teeth are similar in number and character to those of the sivatherium, and are somewhat smaller, as the comparative size of the heads would lead us to expect. A marked distinction between the two is found in the excess in width of the cranium at the vertex, being in the sivatherium 22 inches, and in the Perim fossil little more than 11 inches, in which character the latter approaches nearer to the giraffe. But the greatest point of difference is in the form and position of the horns. In the sivatherium the horns bear somewhat the same relation to each other as in the four-horned antelope; whereas, in the fossil under consideration, the anterior horns rise from a confluent base measuring twenty-five inches; the horns above the line of division measuring eighteen inches. This formation the writer considers to be without precedent in the animal kingdom, fossil or recent. The general character, cancellar structure, and extensive development of the protuberance at the lower edge of the transverse ridge of the occiput, compel the conviction that it was a posterior horn, "reflected" as in the common Indian buffalo, and must have produced an appearance truly monstrous. The whole formation indicates great force and power. Among the other fossils, there were some identical with those of the Sevalie hills, and

others peculiar, as yet, to Perim. Among the latter was a new crocodilean. There were specimens of three species of mastodon, gariols, and rhinoceros; and the heads, horns, and teeth of stags, antelopes, oxen, &c. The writer concluded with the observation that there was still a rich field of research remaining at this deposit, and that he had sent to India, not only for some of the specimens before referred to, but was also making arrangements for prosecuting further research.—Dr. Mantell, who was present by invitation, remarked that the specimens afforded additional confirmation of the fact, first pointed out by Captain Cautley and Dr. Falconer, that in the tertiary formations of India were collected the remains of several species of reptiles and mammalia, with those of extinct species and genera belonging to the most ancient European deposits of the same geological group (the *eoocene*); as, for example, the teeth and bones of the chiropterus, and other pachyderms of the Paris Basin, with those of the existing giraffe of India. Dr. Mantell then offered some observations on the analogy which the specimens from Perim, as well as those from Ava, and from the Sevalie hills, presented in their mineralogical condition, and the mechanical action to which they had been subjected, with those more ancient fossil bones and teeth that abound in the Wealden deposits of the south-east of England; particularly with those obtained from the conglomerate and grits of Tilgate Forest. The Indian and the British fossils are alike mineralized by iron, and have an investment of indurated, ferruginous sand, interspersed with quartz, pebbles, and rolled fragments of other rocks; and the bones are, for the most part, mutilated, and much water-worn, proving that previously to their mineralization they had been exposed to abrasion from streams and rivers, and were transported from a great distance by currents. Dr. Mantell dwelt on the discrepancy between the Faunas of the two epochs, although that of the Wealden was as decidedly of a tropical character as that of the tertiary strata of India; but in the latter large mammalia prevailed, while in the far more ancient secondary formation of England mammalia were absent, and the place of the gigantic ruminants and pachyderms was occupied by heretofore reptiles of appalling magnitude.

The Society adjourned till November.

INSTITUTE OF BRITISH ARCHITECTS.—June 23.—W. Tite, V.P., in the chair. J. Dobson, of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, was elected a Fellow. A paper was read by C. Parker, 'On the Proportions of the Beams used by Ancient and Modern Architects.' The paper commenced by comparing the strength of the square and the strongest beam that could be cut out of a round tree, and contrasting the proportions with the usual forms which ancient and modern architects adopt in beams, the former making the breadth, and the latter the depth, the element of strength. It then traced the views that different nations have held and practised in their constructive operations. It stated that the Egyptians preferred the square form of bearing beam, which proportion was used in Solomon's palace, and that the Greeks and Romans used the rectangle placed horizontally. It then remarked that in all the timber buildings erected before and after the Norman conquest, the breadth of a beam was placed to resist an opposing force, and so continued to be used in the rebuilding of London after the fire in 1666. Prior to this date, the system of double framing was introduced on the Continent, and changing the proportion of timber, made the depth preferred to the breadth, which view is now thought correct. The diversity of opinions thus shown, induced the following experiments, which were made with iron, from the difficulty of obtaining specimens in wood of equal strength. The object was to ascertain the effect of increasing two, three, or more times the breadth of a beam—also of increasing the like number of times the depth of a beam, and the comparative strength of two separate and one compact beam of equal weights. The result showed that every addition made to the breadth, was attended by a decrease of the bearing power in the ratio of $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ as the case might be, whilst a contrary effect attended the enlargement of the depth; also that two separate beams were much weaker than one compact beam.

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of Drawings of Buildings in Southern India,' made some time since under the direction of General Monro. The drawings comprised some elaborate views of the Pagodas, and the Palace and Choultry of Tremall-Raig at Madura, a city on the Coromandel coast, and erected about the year 1623; likewise of the Great Temple of Shiven, on the sacred Island of Ramisseram, between the Coromandel coast and the island of Ceylon, and but little known to Europeans. This temple and its appurtenances almost entirely covers an area of 830 feet by 625 feet. The building is of different periods, a small shrine or temple having existed on the island from a remote period, but the chief additions were made by the Rajah of Ramnad, about 150 years since.

INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.—June 17.—Sir John Rennie, President, in the chair.—The paper read was by Mr. G. Edwards; it described the method employed for breaking up the shoals in the river Severn between Stourport and Gloucester. These shoals consist of marl rock, so compact and tough as to resist all attempts to break it up with the steam dredger as by prize bars, or with a powerful species of subsoil plough. Recourse was therefore had to blasting with gunpowder. It appeared that during the summer months there was in some places only 2 feet depth of water over some of the shoals. In 1842 an act was obtained for the improvement of the Severn, and under the direction of Mr. W. Cubitt, the various works were commenced. The object was to obtain a channel with a depth of at least 6 feet of water at all times. A series of rafts were moored in a line over the shoal parallel with the bank of the river. Along the centre of each raft there was an opening through which wrought iron tubes, 3½ inches diameter, were driven down, at intervals of 6 feet apart, through the gravel down to the marl; within these tubes, the workmen used the chisel, pointed jumper bars, to make the shot holes to a depth of 6 feet below the surface. The loose marl was extracted by an auger tool, a cartridge of canvas well pitched and tallowed, containing 3 lb. of powder, was lowered through the tube into the hole, which was well rammed with loose marl. The charge was then fired by means of Bickford's fuse. It was found that each shot loosened a mass of marl of conical or parabolic form, of which the bore-hole was the centre and its bottom the apex, so that four adjoining shots of two parallel lines would leave between them a pyramidal piece of marl, which was removed by the dredging machine with the loose stuff. The blasting was repeated in parallel lines, and the stuff was dredged up at the rate of 200 per day, the cost of the blasting was about 9s. 9d. per cubic yard.

A working model was exhibited, by Mr. Hyde, of Otis Steam Excavator: several improvements appeared to have been made in its form, and the mechanical parts of its construction, adapting it for dredging under water.

DECORATIVE ART SOCIETY.—June 11.—A paper 'On Stained Glass' was read by Mr. Bridges.

June 25.—The consideration of 'Geometrical Figures as the Foundation of Graceful Outline,' was resumed with more especial reference to "the properties of the oval." From observation of the works of the ancient Egyptians and Greeks, it was considered that those nations were acquainted with a practical method of producing continuous curves, which is not apparent in either Roman or modern Art. The elliptical lines on which the beautiful outlines of the Etruscan vases were founded were supposed to have been selected from a series produced by some simple and convenient system, and are not to be altogether ascribed to the greater perfection of their skill in design. An approximation to the forms of the ancient vases may be undoubtedly produced by mathematical arrangements of straight lines and segments of circles, as was shown; but such systems were considered to be necessarily complex, and unattended with that practical accuracy and freedom observable in the originals. The defects of our practice were instanced in the Tudor arched loadings of the windows to the New Palace of Westminster, where an approximation only to the beauty of a curved line is attained. It was also argued that curves based on hexagonal proportions were the most graceful; and Mr. Jopling partially ex-

plained the septenary system of generating curves by continued motion (through combinations of rotatory movements with those of an ordinary trammel) as invented by himself. He exhibited drawings, that appeared to possess a variety, precision, and accuracy much to be desired. He also affirmed, that for practical purposes, the expense of a couple of shillings would supply a workman with means to produce correctly any curve that might be required. The discussion of this subject will be resumed. On the 9th inst. a 'General View of the History and Application of Glass' will be read.

MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

SAT. Zoological Promenade.
MON. British Architects, 8.
— Entomological Society, 8.
TUES. Zoological Society, half-past 8.—Scientific Business.
THURS. Medico-Botanical Society, 8.

FINE ARTS

THE CARTOON AND FRESCO EXHIBITION, WESTMINSTER HALL.

THE Government commission to Messrs. Horsley, Thomas, MacIse, Cope, Redgrave, and Dyce, to prepare certain works in cartoon, sketch, and specimen (such commission not implying their final acceptance as decorations for the New Houses), was accompanied by an invitation to other artists to contribute; and a promise that three 200*l.* premiums should be awarded to the worthiest designs exhibited. The call has been diligently responded to: and some fifty subjects displayed in the prescribed threefold form make up an interesting show. The prizes have fallen to Messrs. Armitage, Tenniel, and Noel Paton. A few works of sculpture add to the variety and interest of the exhibition; which seems universally considered to be an advance on those of former years.

In some respects, it is so. The designers appear, for the most part, to have had glimmerings—some, clear views of the necessity of that architectonic principle, which must and should distinguish a *fresco* from a picture. In some instances indeed, this has been pushed to an excess:—painted vaultings and Gothic canopies, have been largely resorted to,—and a rigidity of line, such as shall not clash with the perpendiculars or horizontals of stone pillar and oak beam,—has been obviously the uppermost thing in the mind of more than one designer, at the moment "of projection." But the fault is one on Virtue's side. We fear that in other essentials little less requisite, the amendment is smaller. In draughtsmanship, for instance, there is still too much timidity—sadly too much incorrectness:—in composition too sparing an outlay of intelligence and science; qualities both independent of Genius, and as such within the acquirement of every one who takes pencil in hand. Lastly, in the manipulation of their materials, the exhibitors as a body show too little progress. *Fresco* has not yet been mastered by any one among them:—and its difficulties are evaded by each in his own way: so that were the party put in possession of the building to be painted—one compartment would be as faded as an old piece of tapestry hung out in a *bric-à-brac* shop of the Quai Voltaire—while its neighbour might be as fierce as a piece of painting on a red earthenware ground. One gets rid of his shadows by cross-hatching—another has not learned to manage extent of tint without a milky rottenness. Be it further observed, that the limited dimensions of the *fresco* specimens leave as far as ever unsolved, the question whether our artists have the precision of hand and the command over material which must be attained to, ere great works can be carried out. And, unpalatable though the recommendation be, to all such as believe that excellence is purchasable at small cost of time and labour, we cannot but ask the Commissioners, whether their present proceeding might not be amended were they to begin at the beginning, and, following the example of the King of Bavaria in the *Hof-Garten*, make over to our aspirants some mass of dead wall,—the spoilation of which, or otherwise, would be less momentous than disfigurement or failure in the New Palace.

So much by way of preliminary remark: let us now consider the six commissioned pictures, according to their order in the catalogue. The first (35) is Mr. J. C. Horsley's *Religion*. This, as was

inevitable to the display "of the subjection of all earthly power and human distinctions," includes a celestial and a terrestrial group: the latter being arranged in attitudes of devotional awe and submission, round an altar, on which The Book is opened. The composition hardly seems to us to get beyond the allegorical devices commonly employed to symbolize the supremacy of the Eternal over the Transient.—We will not cavil at Mr. Horsley for having given us, in one of his angels, a very strong reminiscence of Flaxman:—that highest-toned of our designers (Blake, perhaps, excepted, for the express indulgence of dreamers), being far too little studied by his countrymen:—but we must say that, despite the pompous sweep of the drapery of the Monarch, and the bold articulations of the armour of the Warrior, the drawing of each figure is restrained and timid, if not incorrect. As an arrangement of colour, too,—to pass from the cartoon to the sketch—the composition exhibits want of harmony and vigour. Mr. Horsley's strong point is the crimson robe of the King, which, we suspect, unbalanced as it is by any judicious discords or harmonies, would have the air of an episode rather than an accessory, were the composition executed on the proscribed scale.—Nor, though the hair, the ermine, and the velvet mantle aforesaid, in the finished square of *fresco*, prove that Mr. Horsley has gained ease of hand in managing his new materials, has he yet succeeded in painting *flesh*. The averted head and the reverential hand, are of a pale ochrey brown, suggesting the idea of change of colour, and showing a tone (at all events) which, if used as a *key* to a crowded composition, would produce a most unattractive result.

Nos. 38, 39, and 40 are devoted to *Justice*, the commission executed by Mr. W. C. Thomas. Here, the lineal arrangement is the first thing which will strike the eye. 'The Divine Agent' (to quote the Catalogue) 'of Justice' divides the composition with as strict an exactitude, as a pilaster run up the centre of the work would do; while the angular lines of the pair of wings are little less rigorously carried out by the horizontal and semicircular lines of the prison vault beneath. It would require more power than our artist possesses to hide a framework so mechanical and obtrusive. Truth to say, some of his attitudes are sadly melo-dramatic; especially that of the central figure, unsheathing the sword. Then the drawing cannot be defended. By his having selected the Angel of Vengeance as the portion of his work to be done in *fresco*, Mr. Thomas makes it impossible for us to avoid noticing the broken arm which points to the monitory tablet: and this is only one among manifold *pentimenti*. Nor can we suppose that the above morsel of finished work can be put forward by its exhibitor in any other light than that of a trial.

Mr. MacIse's *Spirit of Chivalry* (41, 42, 43) appears to be the favourite design with the many. And it is a wonderful piece of ingenuity; about as fit for its purpose, however, as some huge fruit and flower-piece, or a Turkey carpet: nay, less eligible than the last, because, while it is almost as devoid of pictorial effect, its hues are harsher and more obtrusive. Again and again have we deprecated a mere pedantic reiteration of the forms of the elder time; but here there is no novelty, save such as appertains to the eccentricity of a perverse and riotous fancy. We have seen the same heads, the same attitudes, the same costumes, the same accessories (down to the never-to-be-omitted Passion-Flower) in 'The Vow of the Peacock,' and 'Maid Marian,' and 'The Lady in Comus,' and other of Mr. MacIse's pictures. There is much clever drawing, but as much extravagance; and some mistakes for which we were not prepared in so consummate a master of detail as Mr. MacIse. The management of The Lady's drapery, for instance, is such as to give her right arm the appearance of emaciation. The Bard, who is "inspiring Youth by his recitals," clutches the harp with such a cataleptic frenzy, that we wonder not at the sour looks of the bay-crowned Poet, who stands behind him, with a scowl, as though he were saying,

I'd rather be a kitten and cry "Mew!"
Than one of these same metre ballad-mongers.

We do not apprehend that Mr. MacIse intended the Lady, by way of counterbalance, in the midst

of so superanimated a group, not to have merely the "chaste and sainted air," which she here wears, but absolutely the stony aspect of a piece of sculpture. She might be a part of her own throne. In short, though grieved to be at variance with the many admirers of this design, we must record our opinion—that, apart from its unsuitability for its destined purpose, this is one of the most mannered and least original works by its master. The cartoon is marvellous as a highly finished piece of chalk-drawing. We know of no contemporary, even in France,—where *crayon* is so much more largely used,—who could equal it. Mr. MacIse is always more sure of his materials than his contemporaries. We do not enter into his taste for colour, as we have been often obliged to observe, when speaking of his oil-paintings;—but here, as last year, must insist that he can produce what he imagines in *fresco*. His Provoked Poet is no more metallic or crude in tone than the same gentleman in the oil sketch. How vexatious, then, is it, that, with all this superior certainty, an artist whose cleverness so nearly approaches genius should so perversely misconceive the true direction of his efforts. We fear he is cheered on by "a congregation" who are dazzled by his brilliant hand-work into forgetting that an arabesque is one thing—a painter's composition another.

It is best that we should pass Mr. Cope's *Edward the Black Prince receiving the Order of the Garter* (57, 8, 9) with the fewest possible words of regret. Though there be a certain kindly nobility about the principal figure, his "surroundings" are not such as Mr. Cope has given us reason to expect. The drawing is reprehensible,—unredeemed, too, by any felicity of composition; while the morsel of *fresco* gives us sunburnt Egyptian browns, for wholesome English white and red. So highly do we rate Mr. Cope's skill and enterprise, that our disappointment is great. It will be best, too, to cast "the mantle of silence" over Mr. Redgrave's *Prince Henry acknowledging the Authority of Chief Justice Gascoigne* (60, 1, 2); and, this done, we can come to the best design of the six, Mr. Dyce's *Baptism of Ethelbert* (63, 4, 5). It recalls a score of master-pieces of Italian Art. Reminiscences are traceable, and very strong ones; but if the work were therefore to be repudiated, what would become of the far-famed sacred pictures of Young Germany? Moreover, it is no less clear that there is a completeness, a quiet mastery of the subject by Mr. Dyce, which argue a complete mind, as well as a diligent memory. The composition is divided into two groups;—the rite going on in the foreground (wherefore has the monarch so much of the humiliated air of suffering, if not degradation?) and the spectators looking on from a gallery. The connexion between these is effected by a few figures on the steps. We presume it was to secure this intimacy that the monk, who is explaining what passes, has the fanatical earnestness of a Macbrir, rather than the devotional demeanour of one who partakes, also, in the solemnity of the scene. Perhaps—to push our objection a line further—there is too lively an amazement on the countenances of all the spectators. In this Mr. Dyce widely differs from the practice of the young Germans, with whom his manner entitles us to class him. Their quietism runs into insipidity and no-meaning; his devotion, without being chargeable with theatrical exaggeration, has a slight excess of vivacity. But we are applying to his work a closeness of criticism, which few of the other cartoons would bear. Mr. Dyce, by his coloured sketch, seems to understand, beyond his comrades, the requisitions of colour and the powers of *chiaroscuro*, as applied to *fresco*: theoretically. His specimen of hand-work exhibits a desire to get rid of a difficulty by artifice;—none other than the *cross-hatchings* in the shadows, of which mention has been made,—and which, somehow or other, intrusively draw the eye's attention to the flatness and faded air of the specimen—an effect different from the sobriety intended.

The Sculptures.

The sculptures, on the present occasion, are an accidental and subsidiary part of the exhibition—no rewards being proposed, and no public invitation having been held out, in that direction. Their interest is, for this and other reasons, secondary to

that of the competition-works which make the old walls gay with life and colour; but they contribute largely to the effect of the scene—ranging down the centre of the vast chamber, in a double line, and breaking its monotony by their varieties of outline and action. Their number, only twenty-nine, admits of their being displayed to great advantage; each separate work resting on a pedestal, inclosed within a strong frame covered with scarlet cloth. There is an improvement, too, upon last year's arrangement, in this department. The figures of the double line face inwards,—having their backs turned to the Cartoons on the walls. By this means, the sculpture-visitors and the examiners of the Cartoons are divided into separate tides,—whereas, on the last occasion, both exhibitions had to be viewed from the same line of promenade, carried round between the Statues and Cartoons.

If there be no work of very prominent or striking interest in this part of the exhibition, there are many that are creditable to the condition of the art, and confirmatory of that feeling of reinforcement in the ranks of its professors which the last, and more formal, exhibition of Sculpture in Westminster Hall brought with it. We cannot help remarking, however, in reference to the number of clever artists who came forward, on that occasion, in the light of the new patronage which it announced, that this collection and that of the Royal Academy, taken together, represent but a small portion of the promise which the occasion in question afforded,—reckon a few only of the names to which the public then gave a welcome. We have our own fears, from that circumstance; and wish that the wealthy amateur of this spiritual art would keep it in view. The course of public patronage is slow—in no country of the arts more slow than in England; and the rush of candidates was great enough to choke a stream so shallow and sluggish. How are the many names who filled the book of sculpture in that year, to be accounted for in this? Have the crowd of able men who came up to that sudden light, shrunk back to the more obscure labours of their profession, for want of some hand to sustain them in the sunshine? Have they laid aside their wings, after showing how well they could use them,—as bearing them into a region where the necessary fruits of the earth are not yet stored for their use? We fear that, in many instances, this is the case; and that much genius may be wasting itself in unspiritual occupation,—with the new torment of a hope deferred. It is something, however, that these men have had, and accepted, the opportunity of putting themselves in evidence. However slowly, the sculptor's time is coming; and we trust that the public patronage, which called this genius forward, will yet seek it out, for the sculptor's gain and its own.

Of the historical-portrait class of works, which the demands of exhibitions like these in Westminster Hall might have been expected to call into requisition, there are several examples, on the present occasion—and some fine ones. Mr. Henry Shenton's model in plaster of *Archbishop Cranmer* (119) is a fine venerable figure—very striking and appropriate in attitude, character, and expression. This is one of those works, in which the necessary predominance of robe and drapery deprives sculpture of her best resources, and which, therefore, should not be selected by the sculptor, save under the requisitions of a commission like this. But Mr. Shenton's success is the greater because of this difficulty—over which he has triumphed with more than ordinary power. The effect of imitation, in the least imitative parts of sculptured figures—the hair, clothes, &c.—is most skilfully produced. The loose robes of the Archbishop, which wholly conceal the figure, and cover all on which sculpture most successfully works, are not only modelled with a lightness which is admirable, and arranged to aid the picturesque, but have actually communicated to themselves, by an art which may carry Mr. Shenton far, much of that very character and individuality which their necessary presence prevents the sculptor from expressing in the more graphic and familiar sculptural terms. There is expression in the very folds of the episcopal garment, and a revelation of the venerable man through all the envelopments belonging to his dignity. —Mr. Bell's *Shakespeare* (127) is a still more striking

performance—one of the noblest works in the exhibition. Here, the costume of the poet, which is the tight-fitting one of his age, imposes no difficulties upon the artist in the way of graphic representation; and the head is founded upon the bust over the poet's tomb at Stratford-upon-Avon, compared with the other portraits of him, most worthy of credit. The result is, something about the expression of the face—the mouth particularly—which displeases us; but the freedom and spirit of the model are very remarkable,—and this is a work that we shall certainly expect to see in the marble.

Mr. MacDowell's *Lore Triumphant* (139), our readers will recollect to have seen at the Exhibition of the Royal Academy, in 1844,—on which occasion it was noticed in this paper at considerable length [*Ath.* No. 867]. But the same artist has, here, a statue of *A Girl Reading* (140), which, though small, cannot, we think, be overlooked by any one. Truth, nature, and simplicity can scarcely be more happily employed in art than in this charming work. The easy sitting attitude—the youthful form and sweet, earnest, but untroubled features,—the easy pose of the hand on the leaves of the book whose contents have given the young face its hushed expression,—compose a beautiful picture, without one single meretricious device to take from the dignity of the art that has produced it. The truth of sculpture is better detected by the comparison of a work like this with some of the affectations which are its neighbours, than by any form of precept less striking and explanatory.—Mr. Frederick Thrupp—to whose '*Hindoo throwing a Javelin*' we were enabled, last year, to give our good word, has, on this occasion, *A Hunter returning home with his Child on his back* (117), which is an improvement on any work of his that we have yet seen. The figure is easily poised and balanced—the action free and unconstrained,—and there is a careful and conscientious endeavour after anatomical precision, which rebukes some of its companions in this exhibition, and speaks of the patience and study by which success is won. It is a great mistake to suppose that Genius is not a student. We are apprehensive, however, that Mr. Thrupp may be inclined to push his demonstrations too far. There are parts of the figure of this hunter—about the chest in particular—which tend rather too much to the skeleton. The sculptor, however, does well who begins with the study of muscular and anatomical pronunciation; it is an easy task afterwards to cover with flesh, and make the "dry bones live."

But here we must pause for the present;—leaving the remaining works in this Exhibition for a future notice.

AMATEUR GOVERNMENT OF BRITISH ART.

(From a Correspondent.)

For a long time there have been misgivings as to the way public buildings, sculptures, paintings, and such like works were set about, as to the ordering and arranging; but now the objection is felt and confessed by the parties themselves, who begin to open their eyes to the eye-sores they have erected, and are continuing to erect, about and around us. It is the bane of British Art that amateurs rule it, constrain it, enslave it, making use of the artists as mere mechanical means, as mere slaves of their wills. We seem to be an independent people in almost every thing but this; but for the Fine Arts, which do, or should speak the universal language of a people, no means are allowed the artist to exercise ought else but his fingers: hence our public monuments are a disgrace to us, and serve no other purpose but as stimulants to satirical wit, or to help speculation to devise plans how they shall be altered or destroyed. This comes from our legislators, who are great and universal in their own departments—descending for pleasure and recreation to the quietude of the Fine Arts; and, as it often happens amongst the enviable English possessors of noble works of Art, they imagine and assume that they possess judgment and taste as of right, because they possess collections of Art. So do the amateurs, descending from the high seats of their legislative power, fancy that the like power encircles them in the regions of taste, and so they create buildings that are not architecture—monuments that are not sculpture—and now pictures that are not painting; for each of these arts,

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strip of its soul, is the mere material of Art: and how can it be otherwise when British Art is ordered, arranged and controlled by amateurs?—for where can it receive a soul but from the mind of the artist; and how can he impart to it that essential of Art, when the object and control of it is rudely denied to him? As a proof of this, we may look around us at the National Gallery, the Nelson Column, and at this moment the exhibition in Westminster Hall. In the last the Amateur Royal Commissioners have constrained the artists into a competition for six incongruous given subjects to fill the proposed six arches in the House of Lords; and the result is a common-place exhibition, just as much behind the former Cartoon Exhibition as an artist must be below himself when he is obliged to follow the mind of another in an art in which he can only excel when he is independent. If the Amateur Commissioners had given the six vacant arches in competition, and left the artists unshackled to devise their own subjects for the particular purpose, we should now have a far finer exhibition than the former (for there is no substantial reason why the artists should not have advanced, if left at liberty), inasmuch as we should have had thirty-seven varied subjects, according to the number of exhibiting artists, instead of the six, which seem like an attempt to make an acrostic in painting. And what a field would this have been for the Commissioners to have chosen from; and such it would have been if professors in art, in concert with amateurs, had been allowed a voice in the formation of the thing. How this amateur rule has crept into our doing it is not easy or worth while to consider. Fortunately we have no amateur lawyers to control our destinies; no amateur soldiers to preside in courts-martial; nor amateur doctors to torment our bodies: yet, slaves that we are, we consent to allow amateurs to degrade our national character in public monuments, and hold us up as a laughing-stock to other nations. What can an amateur possibly know of an art in comparison with a man who has devoted his life to it, and is withal gifted with genius for it? Yet such are the Commissioners now preparing the ornamental part of the New Parliament Houses; for there is not an artist amongst them, save their secretary, who is only allowed to put their decisions into intelligible language. It is indeed time for the public to complain, when these amateurs themselves confess the folly and uselessness of their own doings; which was the case with the Prime Minister in a recent debate (27th of June, 1845), when, in reference to the National Gallery, he confessed that the trustees (all amateurs) had given 600*l.* for a pretended Holbein, which was not worth 40*l.*; “but in the case of all future purchases, the trustees intended to fortify their judgment by the aid of eminent artists and experienced dealers.” Why fortify such judgment, when they can have the judgment of the artists and dealers themselves? In the same debate he also confesses the utter worthlessness of the National Gallery as a building; insufficient for all its intended purposes, as a public gallery of art; and withal an eye-sore in the finest position the world presents; yet he does not mention that this was also the result of amateurship: together with the Nelson Column, all of which ought now in decency to be converted into the mausoleum of British amateur taste, where it ought to repose for ever in oblivion, instead of being called into new life to decorate the Parliament Houses. This latter, which was to amend all faults, only threatens to make them greater. In the present exhibition of cartoons we see thirty-seven artists, striving to carry out the blind intentions of the Commissioners; all those who shone in the former exhibition are scarcely to be recognized, strip of their liberty in the present; and what makes it a more serious case is, that the said artists have wantonly thrown away 3,700*l.* of their money on the same amateur Commissioners; for the cost of the cartoons may be reckoned at 100*l.* average each, and, as there is no chance of sale, all this money is thrown away, and the chance for the advance of Art, which was the object of the Commissioners, is thrown away with it.

AN ARTIST.

[Smartly argued, but not without a spice of bitterness. *Cui bono?* If amateurs, who have at least

devoted some time and attention to the subject, can know nothing about Art, what can the public know?—and how can the Arts speak “the universal language of a people” when, if this argument be true, the people have not, and cannot have such a language? But say that we get rid of the amateurs, what then? Is the Royal Academy so impartially regulated that our artist friend has never heard a whisper against it? But he is for a mixed commission. Has he never heard that the Academicians as a body, have more than once set their face against such a mixed commission? Further, we must observe, that the amateurs are not responsible for the errors with which they are here charged. We have always objected to the National Gallery; but, we cannot consent, after the established fashion, to censure either the architect or the committee. It was the miserable parsimony of the Government, which is alone censurable; the funds were doled out as if the architect had to build a workhouse, and not a National Gallery, and the utmost that importunity could obtain was only about 70,000*l.*; whereas, had the Government desired to have a building worthy of the site and the nation, it should have appropriated 700,000*l.* to the purpose. All parties see the error now, and therefore the wise and liberal policy with regard to the Houses of Parliament, which when complete, frescoes and decorations included, will cost above a million—and be worth the money.]

BRITISH INSTITUTION.

Ancient Masters.

[Concluding Notice.]

We had decided upon leaving unmentioned the antique picture numbered 24, by *Henri de Bles*, as we gave its cotemporary, No. 66, a single word, knowing well that such works must make their silent way with the public, and that the judicious few understand their merits and demerits better than ourselves. Lest, however, we should appear to have overlooked an item of the Exhibition contributed or procured in accordance with our own recommendations, we shall here interpolate a brief paragraph about it. *Henri*, or vernacularly *Henri de Bles*, called by those inveterate nicknames the Italians, *Cicetta*, from his usual monogram, an owl, was born at Bovines near Dinant; when, it is uncertain: he lived till the middle of the sixteenth century. His having been one of the first who made Landscape a special object among Flemish painters, forms his chief-claim for a niche to himself in the temple of Art. Vienna and Berlin contain his *chefs-d'œuvre*; the latter possesses a super-eminent specimen, No. 101 of Waagen's Catalogue. His ‘*Salvator Mundi*,’ now exhibited, illustrates the character of primitive Flemish landscape; it may even be pronounced good without relation to its age, clear and sweet, though a little eccentric. The figure wants expression—that consecrator of old-fashioned uncouthness; but fine finish does all it can to conceal the defect.

Of Domestic Subjects, apart from portraits, the saloons contain some admirable delineations. ‘*Le Bonnet Rouge*,’ No. 29, a name which had not acquired its present sanguinary renown when the picture was painted by *Teniers*. Here, amidst a scene of harmless uproar and licence, hangs the Red Bonnet—no crimson woollen nightcap, the blood-coloured costume of the shambles, but a flat, vermillion cloth-bonnet—the symbol of no revolution, except, perhaps, that of the room going round. Here are assembled specimens of the Dutch *tiers état*, coarse and ill-clad enough, but the very reverse of *sans culottes*, as they have rather a surplussage of nether garments; and their riotous conviviality has nothing in it of real lawlessness, more than has the collision of their anchored barks, while they jostle and nestle beside each other on the canal waters. *Teniers* had, like *Thomson* at least, a great theoretic relish for rural recreation; he had, beyond doubt, quite a *gusto* for the ocular enjoyment of a boor's banquet—tobacco and strong beer, smoked beef on the barrel-head, and kisses of tun-bellied alewives or obese village-beauties. In sooth, we ourselves, though feeling a preference for less hoggish epicureanism, and estimating the fair sex much less by avoirdupois measure, can seldom behold one of his cabaret scenes without a renegade wish to be downright Dutch clodpolls, denizens of that soil which Andrew Marvel declares only the scum and

slime of English seas fished ashore by Batavian mermen—

Holland, that scarce deserves the name of land,
As but the off-scouring of the British sand.

If ignorant bliss constitute true happiness, as a graver poet seems to affirm, the Millennium will cover the whole earth with Dutch cabarets, and convert the whole human race into Dutch merry-makers à la *Teniers*. ‘*Peasants*,’ by *Le Nain*, No. 34: an excellent piece of workmanship; children listen to an old wandering piper, with the awe and admiration of Greeks to that king of tuneless beggars, that sublime professor of street-melody and hedge-minstrelsy—Homer. Every claimant on public applause, be he high or low, may have his coterie! There are some admirable works here, by *Jan Steen*; an ‘*Interior*,’ No. 35, ‘*Itinerant Musicians*,’ No. 39, and what is called ‘*Jan Steen's Family*,’ No. 48. The last name appears inapplicable to its subject, which would otherwise be a sad libel on the painter's own household from his own hand, or a shameless exposure of its frailties, his own inclusive. We apprehend it represents rather than this an ideal scene, though true to nature, and though its separate details were perhaps familiar enough to Jan's experience of the *Rake's Progress* through life. A jovial *bon-vivant*, whose sidelong leer of most lickerish self-satisfaction, asks the spectator as plain as words could speak it—don't you wish you were me?—sits surrounded with all the luxuries his uncastigated taste desires—meat, music, cards, wine, woman, and last, not least in *Mynheer's* affection and esteem, tobacco-smoke; he holds his pipe as if custom had made it part of him—an additional organ of respiration, tubular and much developed, somewhat more separable from his face than is his nose!—his left arm a kimbo, says, like Alexander Selkirk, “I am monarch of all I survey,” and his red-stockinged left leg rests upon a cushion as soft as Dutch petticoats and Dutch plenitude of person beneath them can furnish him. This said leg, too, epitomizes the whole expression of his features and figure—were these cut out, you might, nevertheless, tell their character from it, in the way a comparative anatomist does that of an entire nondescript from its gamb. His accommodating spouse, or mistress, whichever it may be, provokes his attention with a glass of sherry: behind him a fiddler tickles his ear and a hand-maiden's vanity at the same time; while a fiddler of another species, an ape, stops the clock by lifting up its weight to drop it upon a little jovous girl who has pilfered a coin, and whose roguish companion helps himself from the same pocket, which lies invitingly open, as its wearer—a matron-like *crone*—sleeps off her intemperance upon the dinner-table. So mischief goes its round when the staid housewife gives an example of misconduct! There is a humorous, Hogarthian spirit of satire in all this, although without, perhaps, much of Hogarth's moral purpose. Even the dog that takes his vantage-time to devour the neglected dainties, reminds us of ‘*Marriage à la Mode*,’ where the lean greyhound profits by a similar but wofuller opportunity. For invention and dramatic power, we should rank this picture among *Jan Steen's* best works; for mechanism, others of them have surpassed it; some parts are mellow, some crude and hard, the beautiful local colours, we think, need general union and perfect combination. His ‘*Itinerant Musicians*’ far outshines it as a piece of execution, and displays as much humour and truth of character, if less varied and graduated through individualities so numerous. ‘*Shuffle-board Players*,’ by *Adrian Ostade*, No. 41; a village-inn scene of toss-pennies and toss-pots, coloured with the sweetest pencil, its different tints harmonized into one splendid effect, and the whole picture appears, like a rainbow, to have come into glittering existence almost at once. ‘*The Hurdy-gurdy Girl*,’ by *Hogarth*, No. 101; belonged to the late Mr. W. Seguir, whose good taste the acquisition of it testified; then fell to the public, whose bad taste it equally evinced by the pitiful price it brought [see *Athenæum*, No. 863]; peradventure, our indignation was not quite thrown away, as since we emptied our vial, Mr. C. Baring Wall, M.P. has purchased the inimitable little hurdy-gurdist, inimitable, albeit we grant her petticoats ill-painted, and her expression less sentimental than that of a *Savoyarde* stroller when she *micawls* along the streets her mongrel Swiss-French-and-Italian ditties. This is a wholesome-

looking British lass, with a voice, we dare swear, as sweet as her complexion,—at least, it suits a private-room in which she pours it forth like a pet thrush, black-eyed and clear-throated, the chantress of some worshipful admirer's bower cleft his back-parlour. Here are his cocked-hat and his rapier, so the Mæcenas himself cannot be far distant. 'Cottage Children,' by Gainsborough, No. 116; likewise ill-painted, but a picture that touches the very tenderest fibre of the heart: those two scantily-clothed, beautiful little creatures looking such content, while one of them warms her hands and bare legs at the grateless fire, and her sister cradles near it to eat her porridge—their stunted comforts tell a tale of privation, yet how the pallid, gentle things enjoy their short-lived luxuries, the luxuries of a faggot's blaze in a huge dismal chimney, and a cupful of spoon-meat! After many a long hour's freeze and fast, too, upon the shelterless common or wild hill-side! But then the fire is so pleasant, this shiverer cannot get her small palms full enough of the warmth—and the porridge is so good, t'other cannot eat it slowly enough, 'twill soon be gone! Gainsborough often threw the deepest paths into his scenes of exigent cottage life: what would he do, if alive, now? 'The Canterbury Pilgrimage,' by Stothard, No. 89; this is the third replica we have seen and mentioned; we observe, however, some slight difference, improvements, or otherwise [*Athenæum*, No. 716]. 'Newton showing the effect of a prism,' by Romney, No. 162; were the prism changed to any cabalistic knick-knack, and the name of the picture to 'The Conjuror,' we should have here an admirable satire upon human weakness and knavishness. The philosopher bends his brows with the precise air of a *Sidrophel* when he would look most awful in his dim astrological den, and these are the very servant-maids who would come, with credulous wonderment, to gaze at the wise man, and consult him about a lost silver-thimble or lover. Romney, perhaps, did not mistake Newton's simple, unassuming character more than other artists of the time; even Roubiliac's celebrated statue represents Sir Isaac as an actor of the great man, instead of the great man himself; we comprehend better now-a-days the grandeur of simplicity, thanks to German æsthetics! Much good manipulation and rich sombre colouring have been squandered on the above composition—too large for the subject, had it no worse fault.

Several fine or remarkable Landscapes render the British Institution attractive this year. Most visitors understand landscapes best of all pictures, and also relish them best. Painted imitations of nature can be recognized as either more or less faithful by those who ever travelled beyond brick and mortar, which faithfulness to their minds is sole and sufficient merit. With a few, the beautiful is not limited to the mere beauty of faithfulness; with a very small number, the highest perfection of landscape contains a third merit—the ideal. Amateurs of the first-mentioned class will prefer Calcott's performances above Claude's, and Poussin's, and Cuypp's. The third salient exhibits numerous specimens of our late respected Royal Academician's genius. Here will be found transcripts from the Book of Nature almost true to a dot; defective alone in that lucid tint and vivid lustre which, if imitable, is quite unreplicable by mortal pencil or paint. 'The Quay at Antwerp,' No. 135, 'Passage and Luggage Boats,' No. 140, 'Dutch Market Boats,' No. 165, give us sea, and sky, and atmospheric effects upon the works of man, elaborately and brilliantly—what would we further? Nay, we had felt better contented with somewhat less! It seems worse than a waste of canvas, a weakening of power, to spread over surfaces so large, compositions which might be condensed advantageously within little *Vanderelde* frames. The Greek philosopher's sarcasm recurs when we look at such magnifications by means of mere physical dimensions—"you represent your subject not as great but big." Why, on this scale, a picture of the Channel Fleet instead of two or three fishermen's boats would require a trigonometrical survey to measure its canvas! Some of Sir A. Calcott's minor pieces gave us more satisfaction: 'An Italian Composition,' No. 144, 'Murano,' No. 155, and most of all 'An Italian Landscape,' No. 124, a well-composed, dignified production. Save for a certain heaviness in the touch, these would bear the double test of criticism, distant

and close examination. His three historic efforts 'Columbus' and 'Raffaello and Fornarina' (twice), display the same defect, and want the charm of his landscape genius to balance it. Let us add, for the use of those whom it may concern, that a Raffaello, whose historic character depends upon his familiar features and costume alone, and a Fornarina, whose connexion with him has no distinctive character whatever, is reduced into a mere *tableau de genre* or domestic subject, and should be executed, like any other 'Italian Lovers,' in cabinet dimensions.

Partisans of landscape which idealizes Nature, without fantastical extravaganzas,—and among such amateurs we enrol ourselves,—will feel when they turn to the Cuypp, No. 4, on enchanted ground. A most vision-like scene, glorious enough to pass away as a dream, but fixed by the living photograph ere it fled from his own enraptured gaze! Yet not a single tint, not a trait, bears false witness against Nature, nor misrepresents her essential attributes. How then is it idealized? Selection and combination of her beauties, omission and reduction of her defective accidents, produce much of the said result in this, and do so more or less in every fine work; still Cuypp has a mode of idealizing we think very peculiar to him, and perhaps seldom observed. He gives his substances a slight degree of immateriality that somewhat diminishes their earthliness, and thus bestows upon his scene the vision-like character we mentioned. Such unearthliness is not unnaturalness; because we may conceive it the nature of a purer sphere than our globe, where men and animals of a proportionable nature exist; and a landscape by Cuypp often seems taken from an orb nearer the sun, an orb saturated with sunlight till its substance has become rarefied, and comparatively buoyant, transparent, resplendent, as regards our dense, dusk, standard-planet called Earth. Look at the cow for example, upon the hill-top here: it is a cow, a beautiful creature after its kind, yet would afford if realized few solid pounds of flesh proportioned to its dimensions; it walks like one of *Io's* breed, or *Apollo's* cattle fed in yellow fields of asphodel along the golden-sanded river. Look at that tower afar off; it appears one of *El Dorado's* region. Were this immateriality made too perceptible, it would shock: Cuypp gives but just enough to produce idealization. We shall hazard another suggestion: his splendid atmosphere bespeaks a native of a moist country. No such luminous haze hangs over a sun-dried land, or characterizes the noon-tide mist, which exhales from flood and fell, of any save the juiciest soil, with such palpable lustre,—lustre that "may be felt." Hence we opine the richer magnificence of Cuypp's aerial perspective than Claude's, the latter being more transparent. 'Porto di Ostia,' No. 7, will explain what we mean: its atmosphere, though evaporated from the broad sea itself, is pure and lucid, and while it breathes freshness betokens a southern latitude, where little darkness exists or succulent vegetation. Both's large 'Banditti Landscape,' No. 16, strikes us at the distance as noble, and *Gaspar Poussin's* green-wood view, No. 20, as an admirable pendant to one bought last year by the same proprietor (Mr. Holford), and noticed then by us [*Athenæum*, No. 872]. But the *Vander Neer*, No. 24, comes next the Cuypp in poetical conception, its sombre glow enkindling the imagination to thoughts above its common reach, and giving the mind that solemn tone which elevates even a groveller's against his will for the moment. With what grandeur the tall, illuminated tree stem arises on the foreground; every such impressive object, like a church-spire, lifts the thoughts heavenwards, and becomes a help to natural religion, however unconscious the spectator may be of its influence. His reptile soul is not often assisted to soar by *Hobbema*, who rather aids its alacrity in sinking, if it have been raised by an idealist painter. We remember, indeed, quite a sublime landscape, or ruin of a landscape, by *Hobbema*, exhibited here some seasons ago, and belonging to Sir Robert Peel; but he seems very seldom capable of this perfection, and for the most part keeps his admirer's imagination down to earth's level, though with a thousand fine-wrought ties. His clair-obscur has, at times, a tinge of the ideal, as two companion specimens from the Grosvenor Collection (Nos. 49 & 52) evince: their centes foci of light, their outskirts circles of shadow, prove he understood the

Correggicque principle, and could appreciate the magic of its powerful effects. There is an earthiness about his texture and touch, less agreeable in those pictures, if a preferable extreme to over-smoothness. No. 14, a large *Ruysdael*, perhaps, from approaching this other extreme of manipulation, wants effect proportioned to its grand composition; *Hobbema* seldom conceived a feature like the dark-bosomed dingle and abrupt hill on the right. No. 54, an exterior and figures, by *Isaac Ostade*, must rank among his master-pieces; a high-roofed hovel he makes to nod with the air of a feudal fortress; the figures are well grouped, many well drawn, and if they tell no dramatic tale, represent the scene before a roadside village-inn characteristically enough. No. 22, a 'Hawking Party,' No. 77, a 'Skirmish of Horsemen,' and No. 83, a 'Sea-shore View of Figures landing goods,' by *Wouvermans*, display his exquisite workmanship and beautiful subdued coloration to the best advantage. Various other works will give the visitor much pleasure, but we omit them as, in our judgment, of subordinate merit, whether original or not.

PICTURE SALE.

WHAT the catalogue entitled a "Collection of Historical Portraits" was sold last Saturday at Messrs. Christie & Manson's. Some few jewels were among the rubbish, though none of inestimable value. A portrait of 'Pope and his Dog,' by *Jervis*, very ill painted, as may be supposed from this melancholy dauber's name, had much interest to us, who worship the spiritual little *Twitnam* wit like a household god, though sometimes, *Apollo*-like, indeed, he shot poisoned arrows around him. Here he sits in a pale drab riding coat, long black-topped boots, and a close powdered wig, more of a retired Dendermonde hero than him whose hundred fights were against dunces and knaves and coxcombs alone. We could but detect, or think we detected, the vivid, expressive eye, black as jet, brilliant as diamonds, and a suspicion of the bitter smile that played about his mouth, even during his placid moments, such an index of his acknowledged sensitiveness!—

Peace is my dear delight, not Fleury's more,

But touch me, and no minister so sore!

This small picture hung very high; if original it should have brought from a literary collector guineas instead of shillings: 1*l.* 12*s.* 'Mrs. Ward,' by *Hogarth*, 13 guineas. Women were right to employ *Hogarth*, for his portraits gave them instead of "no character at all," peradventure more than they had. We must admit, however, that the character was of a somewhat *paw-paw* description; even the 'Portrait of his Wife,' has a chirrup on her lips, and a leer in her glance, which would proclaim the very discreet and respectable lady a deal too accessible. It brought 15 guineas; both are well painted, the tone a sweet soft silver-grey, bespeaking an uncorrupted colourist. 'Major André,' the gallant victim of privileged espionage, whose fate excited deep interest, and whose portrait ought to excite it still; this one is a smooth, red, feeble production, quite an incredible *Sir Joshua*: 10 guineas. 'Westminster Election,' by *Hogarth*, a large picture full of figures, yet a kind of satirical portrait-piece, forasmuch as only the foreground personages are made out, and form almost the entire object of the representation. *Fox* is arm-in-arm with *House*, the hotel-keeper; behind them *Quin*, the epicurean actor, touches with delicate finger-tip a turbot, to test its freshness; before them *Garrick* attracts their mindful regard, being much perplexed between the solicitations of an actress, perhaps *Mrs. Woffington*, who pulls him towards her "primrose path," and *Dr. Johnson*, who would keep him on the thorns of fixed attention to his new play, 'Irene.' *William, Duke of Cumberland*, discourses with a Hungarian nobleman, depicted like a blackamoor in a red hussar uniform. *Lord Sandwich* thrusts his tongue'd head out of his coach window, to observe *Sterne* at an ostentatious act of charity, which *Fielding* criticizes, and *Hogarth* himself sketches. Some of these groups are double satires; the *Garrick* trio parodies *Sir Joshua Reynolds's* well-known picture of that actor between Comedy and Tragedy, as well as ridicules *David's* universal pretensions, *Peg Woffington's* wantonness, and *Johnson's* importunate dramatic ambition. The

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work seems unfinished, or, rather, a first thought put down off-hand upon canvas, without after correction, like many another by Hogarth: the background exhibits Covent Garden, and is better done, because edifices are easier portrayed than human figures. We need not add that the principal personages, rough and rude delineations though they be, proclaim their individualism throughout every line capable of expressing or co-operating to express character. Price 51 guineas.

Ely.—I forgot, in my last, [*ante*, p. 571.] to notice a mistake which some of the public journals fell into a year or two ago, and which, I believe, has never yet been contradicted. It was asserted that the Dean and Chapter had caused the remains of the old Conventual Church to be pulled down, and thus irrevocably destroyed one of the most perfect specimens of Saxon architecture remaining in this country. I am very glad to inform you, that not a stone of the old church has been removed. Indeed, it would be a difficult task to destroy that which would destroy the residences of half-a-dozen prebends, for the arches and columns which constituted the principal part of the ancient church are built into the walls of the houses appropriated to these dignitaries, and the passage between them is the former nave of the church. Although it were to be wished that such valuable remains were more exposed to observation, yet we have the satisfaction that no hasty caprice could at present remove them. If the prebends of the cathedral have no regard to the church of their Saxon ancestors, we may reasonably suppose they are not insensible to the stability of their own residences; and it is not improbable that we owe the preservation of these remains, after Catholic architecture got into disrepute, entirely to the circumstance of their having been built into houses, which churchmen have been interested in preserving. I may briefly notice the present condition of this relic. Many of the arches and columns are still perfect. There were originally ten on each side of the nave, alternately circular and octagonal. There appears to have been no transept, but a small low arch remains, which probably divided the nave from the choir. At the eastern extremity, a large arch spanning the whole breadth of the choir, seems to mark the end of the church, but whether it was formerly filled with lights, cannot now be ascertained, as it is so deeply imbedded in one of the prebendal houses. Every admirer of early architecture must be struck with the beauty of these remains. There is no other evidence of immaturity of workmanship or coarseness of taste about them, than the smallness of all their proportions and the plain narrow lights, one immediately over the centre of each arch, which formed the clerestory. The mouldings and ornaments are various and beautiful, the capitals less rude than the generality of the Norman, and the soffit of the arch, where one has been exposed, is sharp and finely wrought. Indeed, in ornamental detail, the present nave of the cathedral yields to this beautiful miniature one. Those who judge merely by the eye, and take rudeness for antiquity, would date these remains much later than many parts of the adjacent cathedral. I know not how the rumour of this church being destroyed got abroad, unless the destruction of a large old tithe barn, built of stone from the remains of old monkish buildings, suggested it. The barn, however, was not probably older than the Reformation, and, as a wall of it at present testifies, had no claims upon the interest of the antiquary. T. C.

Ancient Engravings.—The British Museum has just purchased, as we are informed by a correspondent, a collection of ancient engravings of the Italian school. "By whom the nucleus or germ of this collection was first formed," says our correspondent, "is not known. It was of great extent and importance when it came into the possession of Mr. Storch, of Milan. By him it was increased during a series of years, and afterwards disposed of to a dealer in London. He, too, exerted his taste, knowledge, and abundant opportunity in extending and improving it. It was subsequently purchased by Sir Mark Sykes. The Italian school of Sir Mark Sykes's catalogue was, for the most part, either at the sale, or subsequently, reclaimed by its preceding proprietor, and he, during nearly twenty years that afterwards elapsed, lost no opportunity of enriching it. It contains nearly eighty works in

niello upon silver, among which is the celebrated Pax by Maso Finiguerra, which, at Sir Mark Sykes's sale, brought 300 guineas. It comprises fifteen impressions in sulphur, and a whole volume of impressions on paper, from works in niello, among which latter is the noted piece, also by Finiguerra, once belonging to Mr. Otley, and copied and described in his 'History of Engraving.' This also brought 300 guineas at Sir Mark's sale. Among the copperplate engravings is almost every Italian print that has been described as of extraordinary nature or rarity in books treating of ancient art; nearly the whole, indeed, of the 13th volume of Bartsch; entire works, therefore, or nearly so, of old engravers, of whom it is rare to meet with even a single specimen, such as Botticello, Baldini, Zoan Andrea, Polluaguolo, the Brixiani, Robetta, Nicoletto da Modena, Mocetto, &c. Of Andrea Mantegna's whole works, scarce half-a-dozen prints are wanting. There is the whole fifty prints of 'Il Gioco di Tarocchi,' by Baldini; also his Sibyls and Prophets; the celebrated print from two plates of the 'Assumption of Madonna;' the print of 'Christ led to Crucifixion,' being the only copperplate engraving ascribed to Finiguerra; all the prints of the Florentine Dante of 1481, ascribed to Botticello; the whole set of the Planets. All these prints are of such rarity as to be known only by Strutt, Otley, and other writers on art having introduced into their works a copy of such one or other as they might happen to have obtained access to; in fact, they are, for the most part, unique. The collection contains also the volume entitled 'El Monte Sancto di Dio' (1477), with the three curious prints by Baldini, remarkable for being the first book ever published with copperplate engravings; also the 'Cosmographia' of Ptolemy (1462), with all the maps. Prints there are also of such rarity as not to have been ever noticed in any publications; such, for instance, is one most extraordinary both in style and subject, and which an ancient MS. attached to it ascribes to Antonello di Messina, an artist otherwise unknown as an engraver, and who was born as early as 1420. The whole collection contains about six hundred prints, and of this number full one-third part are actually unique specimens, existing nowhere else. No foreign collection, neither Paris, Vienna, Munich, Dresden, Berlin, have anything of the Italian school at all equal to this collection. Indeed, so much of it being unique, it is impossible that they should."

THE ARTIST AND THE ARTISAN.

M. de Lamartine lately gave a dinner, at his residence at Monceaux, to upwards of 100 persons; and there, in reply to the toast in his honour which was proposed by M. Liszt, the pianist, the honourable deputy for Mâcon concluded with the following toast of his own:—"To the policy of the masses; their rights, their honest and legitimate interest; and in particular to the *laborious people, artists and artisans* of our town and neighbourhood."—This toast of the poet-politician furnishes us with a fitting text for some remarks, which we have, on many similar occasions, seen the necessity of, some day, making,—that we may escape even the risk of being by any one mixed up with a fallacy little less dangerous to the cause of improvement than that which it tends to replace. We have so long and constantly, as our readers well know, advocated the claims of the masses—on every question which affected, as we believed, their material well-being, or promoted their intellectual development, have done such faithful battle in their cause,—that we incur no suspicion of desertion when we lay down the limitations within which we have intended to assert their rights. The arguments for popular cultivation, which are the established neoteric of the day, and have begotten a neology of their own, are the ancient and approved texts of this paper. We were for the people, before the people were in fashion—and are for them now, against the mistakes which that fashion may make. It happens, too often, that, in the final triumph of moral questions which have been long disputed, a set of verbal formulae grow up; which, carelessly offered and accepted, in the first instance, as expressions of the principle about which there is no further contest,—and sufficient for their purpose while the argument for the principle is yet fresh in men's minds,—are,

afterwards, when the principle comes to be sought in the expression itself, found to have limited or distorted the former by their inadequacy or inappropriateness to the latter. Orators like M. de Lamartine cannot be too careful in their choice of phrases, where great truths are at stake,—lest, as in the case of a bungling Act of Parliament, obtained after a hard struggle and defeated by its own wording, the issue of some great moral debate should be lost in the literals which record it. The same earnest conviction and careful discrimination which conducted the argument for Truth, should be afterwards employed in its definition. This is very especially a duty with men to whom, as to M. de Lamartine, a large public are likely to look up as interpreters. For ourselves, we have, through good and evil report, insisted on the education of the people—understanding by education the full and liberal development of their intellectual faculties—in such directions, by way of preference, as may best meet the necessities of their several positions, and best enable them to turn to account the varieties of accident by which they are surrounded,—but holding, as the general proposition, that no knowledge can be ill or wastefully bestowed, save when it is in the way of some other knowledge more useful than itself. But with the same earnestness and conviction that we have defended the claims of the many, have we maintained the prerogatives of the few,—while pleading for the general man, we have never intended to deny the exceptional one. The claims and privileges of genius have had advocates as warm and untiring in ourselves as the claims and rights of labour; and our argument, and that of others, in behalf of the former, though as sound, can hardly be said to have been yet as successful, as that which has been conducted in behalf of the latter. Our object has been to raise, but never to depress,—to improve the average, at once by increasing the smaller, and maintaining all the larger, figures with which it is to be reckoned—to elevate the general level out of which genius soars, but not to produce an intellectual flat. In the world of mind, as in the material world, it is these varieties of surface and elevation which are the element of its picturesque, and furnish forth its healthful circulation. It is the towering spirits of intellect who catch on their brows the nearer hues of heaven, and reflect them for the crowd below; who pierce the clouds of thought, and cause them to descend in fertilizing streams, and feed a thousand intellectual springs throughout the world. To teach the multitude to drink at these waters, and appreciate those hues, has been, after its more obvious bearings on the business of life, the object of our argument for education. It was necessary, then, to its very completeness, that we should at all times maintain the distinctions which M. de Lamartine, and too many others, seem inclined to overlook. We do not confound the great composer with Mr. Hullah's singing-classes; and, while willing to make the artisan as much of an artist as possible, we do not lower the artist to the level of the artisan. Neither are we satisfied with such phrases as that of M. de Lamartine, which classes the artist with "the laborious people." It is quite true that, in the rivalries of a swarming civilization, the great mass, whether of artists or authors, are driven, by the crowded state of the field on which they work, to be little better than mere labourers (*that is the accident of the case*); and it is true also, that, even for the exceptional few who rise above the accidents of the field, the toil which

Scorns delights and lives laborious days,

is a necessary condition of their supremacy:—but in these formal propositions, such words are meant to represent the abstract and essential ideas, and marshal the ranks, of the *things themselves*,—*art is here lowered*, in the name of the *artist*, and made to take its station among the commonplaces of the world. In France, and from M. de Lamartine, we are the more surprised at a mistake of this kind,—because the orator is a poet, and the country one in which the artist has his rank. But, if we be told that these are reasons which should satisfy us that the toast could not merit the inference which we have drawn from it, for the purposes of this argument, and that its form is mere words—we answer, that—knowing as we do, the disposition of society to put words for things, the influence of names, and that there is a party yet, and a large one, who would gladly avail themselves of all such dis-

positions and influences, to keep down the claim of genius, that, in its progress, is threatening to depose their own—we have felt it necessary to make this protest, for the sake of the former—and for our own.

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

THE MUSICAL UNION.—The Director of the "Musical Union," in his Song of the Swan, reminds us of Mr. —'s French poodle; at least if we are to accept the master's explanation of one of the dear creature's pleantries. "Some one has affronted Fido, so he has gone and bit Mrs. Jones in the leg." Burning with zeal to support the "most prolific species of high Art," the Director, because the *Athenæum* has endeavoured to protect the independence and dignity of the artist, "falls foul" of a song by Mr. —; introducing a criticism from a contemporary journal, by a symphony in his own high Abigail style. Surely this is Fido's logic! But what will the patrons, whose battle he fights, say, when informed that not six months ago their Director not only beset the *Athenæum* with entreaties for support—but crouched at the feet of the very writer of the very bad song—"the vile and contemptible trash," for direction, advice and praise?

Let us leave, however, these simple truths, for the main argument; which, it is needless to say, would be untouched could it be proved that the Concerts of the Musical Union had been seraphic, or that the ditty under abuse was as rhetorical as the 'Record.' The *Musical Union* has now closed the eight meetings of its season; thirteen having been promised by the prospectus sent to us for praise. "The Noblemen and Gentlemen of the Committee," as we learn from the Director's prospectus of his Benefit Concert—not given at Musical Union prices, mark: but with guinea and half-guinea tickets!—"have released the undertaking from pecuniary expenses beyond the mere nominal subscription of a guinea paid for membership"—and sanction the Director's benefit in consideration of "his services in behalf of the Society." Good. What is this but a confirmation of our assertion, that the subscription was too small to pay performers—performers not even equal to those of last year:—though the Director, true to his "*sour-kroust*" principle of gratitude, now disparages the gone-by gratuities of that brilliant company of artists. But, further, have all the performers been paid? We believe not one of the seven pianoforte players—each of whom contributed his full share to the morning's programme, and who would be seriously distressed were such contributions rated below an *honorarium* of—five guineas! Further, observe, the Director is to have "patronage" for his Concert, (at which the stringed-instrument players who have been paid for the "Union," will perform, we presume, gratuitously)—worth (will this content him?) some sixty or seventy pounds. What, then, is the result? Simply, that "The Musical Union"—limited in scale as it has been—is, nevertheless proved to have been the eleemosynary affair which we pronounced that it must become; certain musicians having contributed one hundred pounds' worth of services to its performances and the pay of the Director!—that the establishment is one where "gentle" subscribers belonging to the class best able to remunerate talent have got music cheap out of "simple" artists! We are content to leave the "improvement" to be drawn from this statement to the fine feeling of Presidents and Vice-Presidents; and to the plain sense of all who have wrought for their pleasure.

CONCERTS OF THE WEEK.—The seven days just over, we presume, make up the last of "the heavy weeks" of a musical season, busy rather than interesting; yet marked by some features calling for grave and especial comment. Deferring this for awhile, we must speak of the novelties as they passed.

The last concert of the *Royal Academy* was an interesting one: in some respects, nearer what an Academical Concert should be than most of its predecessors—inasmuch as it was more of a Students' Exhibition, and less of an attempt to rival the Philharmonic, the Ancient, or the Classical benefit meetings. We will at any time thankfully give up a mechanical version of 'Bell'raggio,' or 'Come per me,' for a performance of a scene by Purcell: since

to make that tell, besides clever vocalization, we must have a refined and sensitive English articulation. In this the students seem generally too deficient; though by listening to Miss Duval when she sings Handel, they might learn how much good saying can help good singing, even when the voice is limited. On these grounds we would beg Mr. Weatherbee to reconsider his vowels. This day week they were neither French, English, German, nor Italian; and since Dryden's poetry goes for something, and since this young artist obviously knows that such is the case,—it is vexatious to hear what might be otherwise a good performance, driven to the verge of absurdity. Then there were two meritorious displays on the pianoforte. Mr. Wells, too, played the flute *obligato* to 'Lo, here the gentle Lark' very neatly—but the song is too much in the style of Mrs. Fugleston's 'Soft Bells, O la!' to be admissible as a study, especially since there are charming settings of Shakespeare, by Sir H. Bishop, as unfairly neglected. Mr. Wilson's *Corno di bassetto* was not in time, nor has Miss Davies voice for 'Non più di fiori.' Mr. E. B. Harper's horn solo was hardly up to the mark: so let us pass to Master Hill's clever violin playing of the *allegro* to De Beriot's concerto in D major. We have too seldom heard any young English player—none of the old school—with so much style, accent and steadiness. There were two new compositions of importance, a clever overture to 'Bluebeard,' by Mr. Walter Macfarren, and a pleasing *finale* to an opera, of quintet and chorus, written by Mr. Leslie: with that indescribable *cut of the stage*, which, we are inclined to believe, cannot be taught, but must, like reading and writing (according to Dogberry), "come by nature." We shall, however, call the young composer's attention to a questionable point in his instrumentation. He seems too fond—in the *mezzo-forte* part of the *andante* particularly—of combining his voices with wind instruments. Now these, especially clarinet, oboe and bassoon, have so close an affinity to the tones of the human voice, that, though aware that Spohr's example may be quoted against us, we cannot but point out that the juxtaposition produces an effect of thickness destructive of life and spirit. There is no empirical receipt in these cases, and the proof lies always in the hearing. Who, for instance, on being acquainted with the mixture of instruments used by Meyerbeer in his '*Pif-Paf*' ballad from 'Les Huguenots,' could imagine the felicitous and piquant effect produced? But our hint is worth throwing out, whether for proof or disproof from the scores of the masters of orchestral colouring. We had well nigh forgotten to speak of the 'Te Deum,' by H.R.H. the Prince Albert, a harmless piece of reminiscence—nothing more.

We must now speak of two concerts given by pianoforte players, Mr. Wallace and Mr. Osborne. The former is the more ambitious performer. He aspires, it seems, to the difficulties of the newest school; but with much facility, freedom, and command of the instrument, there is a general want of regulation in his playing (we know not how better to express it), which prevents its receiving the justice due to its executive brilliancy and the glimpses of taste and spirit which it reveals. His compositions are in no respect remarkable. Mr. Osborne is more individual, and thus more accomplished. He is an elegant player; suave, delicate, measured without pedantic effort—though hardly profound enough to render Beethoven's 'Kreutzer Sonata' according to its meaning. The *Nocturni*, or *Romances*, or *Studies*, he introduced on Tuesday morning, are full of melody, diversified by good, if not very recondite, modulation; and the melody in these, as also in a pleasing pianoforte trio, which Mr. Osborne performed, has a form and feature of its own, a certain Irish grace and sweetness, clearly recognizable by any who have studied the national music of the country—a predilection for certain suspensions and intervals—a mixture of gaiety and pensiveness (as Moore has remarked in one of his fanciful and highly-finished prefaces to the Melodies) distinguishing it honourably from the mass of tunes and second subjects in which instrumental composers are too apt to introduce reminiscences of this opera or the other *ballad*. Though slight as regards construction, Mr. Osborne's pianoforte music is his own; and, rendered by himself, cannot fail to please all save the cynical or the prejudiced.

M. de Meyer's Concert.—We have had so many opportunities of doing justice to M. de Meyer's mechanical finish and force, and have so often adverted to the absence in his pianoforte playing of all the finer qualities which elevate the artist above the artisan,—that to have attended his *Second Concert* would have been a superfluous weariness, no report being called for.

We must, however, observe, that M. de Meyer appears solicitous to excite public attention by other than his musical acquirements. We are informed that he has thought fit to approach those whom he assumes to have written criticisms displeasing to him, not merely by letter, but by personal manifestations, in the lively style of the Quadrant and the Haymarket. Should the manner grow into a fashion, the proper reporter on musical performances will be the Policeman. Rumours, too, are abroad—names mentioned—stories of occurrences which never happened in circulation—justifying the supposition that this ill-advised foreigner is urged on by the sympathy and encouragement of some of our countrymen. This is intelligible enough. With the bribery system of the press such recourse to insult or intimidation has ever gone hand in hand; and those who speak plainly of the one, are likely to be assaulted by the other. But whether the course of conduct in question originate in an unwise stranger fancying that a display of Erceles' vein may succeed here, which has not succeeded in other capitals, or in any hanger-on, who, like Fliebertigibbet behind the lubberly porter at Kenilworth, avails himself of another's bulk and inexperience to serve his own turn,—we warn all whom it may concern, that the system will not be endured. Truth is neither to be bullied into silence by brute force, nor blinded by degrading compliments, nor wearied by venom voided in print. Law is not powerless, nor exposure impossible.

HER MAJESTY'S THEATRE.—The long-heralded wonders of Madame Rossi Caccia have proved so amply satisfactory to the subscribers, that report declares a circular to have been forwarded to the manager begging him to husband them,—and to treat our unworthy London ears—to Grisi, Brambilla, and Mario, again! Is the world of the stalls and boxes, then, at last wakening to the persevering attempts made to thrust second-rate artists upon them by aid of a conniving press? At all events, nothing could be more delicious to the ear, by contrast, than the two ladies in Mercadante's 'Il Giuramento,' which was revived on Tuesday evening. In itself the opera is little calculated to please the English public. The *libretto* is ill arranged, and the music, though clever and complete, at once heavy and *fade*: but the duets between the ladies were sung and enjoyed in the style of the rare old times—and Mdlle. Brambilla's *entrata* 'Or la sull' onda,' most artfully humoured, to avoid the decayed notes in her voice, was so nobly given that the first movement was an *encore*. The concerted music suffered much from Signors Moriani and Fornasari; the first bawled incessantly, the second was never in tune, and when left alone, was more growling and tremulous than ever. His "day of grace" is passing, we suspect, with the subscribers. We shall be glad, for the sake of all parties, to believe that the point to which "the forcing system" has been carried, is already beginning to work its downfall. Rumours have been for some time gathering, of a potent opposition in projection for next season—and could Persiani, or Tadolini, Viardot, Rubini, Ivanoff, Tamburini, or a *basso* be brought together—our epithet would be well merited. But, holding as we do, the place for Italian music to be Her Majesty's Theatre, we would fain see such a division of interest on the part of the town rendered impossible by a more natural and healthy policy on the part of the manager.

COVENT GARDEN.—The Belgian company have this week introduced 'Les Huguenots' to a London audience with good success. The work is one, not only to bear, but to demand several hearings, ere it can be rightly enjoyed and comprehended; and a few remarks to be offered with regard to its peculiarities may be postponed till a future occasion. Meanwhile, the universal "adherence" which has been "given in" to these French operas, is satisfactory: and the proof (had we needed it) of English fairness in appreciation.

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MISCELLANEA

Paris Academy of Sciences.—June 16.—One of the first papers read was a communication from M. Bousingault on the formation of fat in the animal system.—A paper was received from M. Philippart, on the cultivation of the corn lands in France.—Mr. Meigs, of Pennsylvania, read a paper on the means of curing the cyanose, or blue malady, of new-born children. If, says Mr. Meigs, after a scientific description of this malady and its causes, the child be turned upon its right side, with the body and head rather elevated, the arteries will frequently be filled with only oxygenated blood, and the blue colour will disappear. He states that by this simple method he has saved from death from 50 to 60 children out of 100, whereas all other modes of treatment have hitherto been unsuccessful.—A paper on aneurism was read by M. A. Bérard.—June 23.—Previously to the reading of the papers the Academy elected M. Séguin a corresponding member in the section of mechanics, in the room of M. Fossombroni.—Several communications were read on the polarization of light; one by M. Biot.—A paper was received from M. Martenz, stating that he has discovered the means of carrying on the Daguerrottype process on a gigantic scale. He can, he says, Daguerrottype an entire panorama, embracing 150 degrees!! His process consists in curving the metallic plate, and causing the lens which reflects the landscape to turn by clockwork. The lens, in turning, passes over on one side the whole space to be Daguerrottyped, and on the other side moves the refracted luminous cone to the plate, to which the objects are successively conveyed.—As usual, there were communications respecting railways. M. Pequeur made some further remarks in favour of his railroad with compressed air; M. Coche proposes some ameliorations in the tubes of locomotives; M. Grenier talks of a partition of safety between the rails of a road; and M. Arago entered into details on the means of closing the longitudinal opening of the tube of atmospheric railroads.—M. Chuzallion presented some observations on the tides of Akarva, in New Zealand. He concludes that the action of the sun upon the tides increases with the declination, and that the action of the moon appears to increase in proportion as the distance at the south pole diminishes.—A paper was received from M. Costa, on an inquiry which he is about to make for the Bolivian government, with a view to shorten the distance which separates that country from Europe. Instead of cutting through the Isthmus of Panama, it is proposed to render the Amazon river navigable on the eastern side of the Cordilleras.—M. Ramon de la Sagra presented a pamphlet, in Spanish, on the cultivation of the sugar cane on the coast of Andalusia. This cultivation, it appears, is of very old date, and there are at this moment nine manufactories at work, supplying more than 30 millions of pounds per year. Two sorts of cane are grown.—the small sort called *criole*, in the West Indies, and the larger cane of St. Domingo, which was introduced in 1816. M. de la Sagra thinks it would be easy to raise in Spain the quantity of sugar consumed in that country.

The An-archæologists.—It would give me pleasure if any one circumstance could be adduced which would enable me to correct the impression I am under respecting the Dean of Hereford's ticket for the Canterbury Congress; and I was in hope that the Dean himself, from some collateral fact, would have furnished me with means for proving myself, on this point, to be in error. But the letter you have published, and one I have had the honour to receive from the Dean, of themselves prove rather against his opinion, and for my own. The Dean writes thus to me, on June 9th:—"Within a very short time of my arrival at the spot in Bourne Park, where the barrows were opened on the Tuesday in the Congress week, at Canterbury, I spoke to you about the admission ticket. You subsequently gave me my ticket, and I paid you at the same time one guinea." Unfortunately for the Dean's belief and statements, he has not pointed out one single incident to support them. The very pressure of business, referred to in the letter printed in the *Athenæum*, caused me to endeavour to guard against the chance of receiving money for tickets without making an immediate entry in my note-book, in which appear the names of some paid me in Bourne Park, and during the Congress, but not that of the Dean of Hereford. My memory and book concur in the fact, that the ticket was not, as the Dean imagines, given subsequent to the meeting in Bourne Park, or at Canterbury at all; but that it was forwarded by me from London to him at Hereford, some days previous to the meeting. I sent it him there, because I thought the Dean might not see me on his arrival at Canterbury, and that he might experience inconvenience, if pressed for time, in not being provided with his ticket, without which, in fact, he could not have entered the place

of meeting. The explanation given by the Dean in his letter to you is quite at variance with that he had previously given in his letter to me, above alluded to. I did not see the Dean on his *immediate* arrival at Canterbury, nor, as far as I can remember, until he took the chair at the meeting of the Primæval Section, on the Monday evening. It thus appears that the Dean has not as yet given us admissible reasons for being "perfectly confident" of having paid for his ticket; that the first two statements he has made are at variance with one another, and both are at variance with known facts. Allowing for the possibility of my being in error, I retain a firm conviction that he has never paid me for his ticket; and such also was my conviction immediately on his return from Canterbury, when I gave in my account of tickets disposed of, and placed the Dean's name among the unpaid tickets. I may add, that in my list of tickets delivered by me, the Dean's ticket stands as No. 37, and I supplied fifty-one tickets before we went to Canterbury. As you have inserted the Dean's letter, I request you will give a place to my reply; and remain, Sir, Yours, &c.

CHARLES ROACH SMITH,
Hon. Sec. of the British Archæological Association.
5, Liverpool-street, City, June 24, 1845.

[We have to apologize to Mr. Smith for not publishing his letter last Saturday; but the Editor did not arrive from Cambridge until late on Friday, and had not time even to open letters until Saturday morning. The question raised, however, is not worth a thought. However unpleasant the position in which Mr. Smith has placed himself, no one doubts his integrity. It was his friend Mr. Pettigrew who raised the question; and we merely referred to the subject in further proof of the absurdity of a treasurer withholding his accounts from those whose appointment is his only title to the office.]

Göttingen.—I beg to direct your attention to a mis-statement in the *Athenæum* of last week. In your report of the proceedings of the British Association at Cambridge, Mr. J. Heywood is stated to have read a paper "On the University Statistics of Germany," and "particularly directed attention to the University of Göttingen, where the numbers have fallen from 2,600 to about 600, in consequence of the conduct of the King of Hanover." Now I beg to inform you that I was a student at Göttingen from 1834 to 1837 (the year of the present King's accession), and during that period the number of students never exceeded 904; while, in the year 1836, it was as low as 823. Moreover, in Esterley's "History of the University of Göttingen," which is now lying before me, there is a tabular view of the number of students that attended Göttingen from 1820 to 1837 inclusive, from which I find that, during that period, the University never mustered more than 1,345 students; while, since the year 1825, the period of its greatest prosperity, the numbers are found gradually diminishing, till, in 1836, they reach the low figure, as already stated, of 823. The dismissal of the seven professors, to which I suppose Mr. J. Heywood alludes when he speaks of "the conduct of the King," no doubt affected the prosperity of the University; but surely that fact gives neither to Mr. J. Heywood, nor anybody else, the right of exercising his imagination to such an extent as has been clearly done in the present instance. The decline of Göttingen, and of many other German universities, is not owing to the conduct of this or that sovereign, but to many other deep and less visible causes, which, if you will give me space, I shall be happy to lay bare in an early number of the *Athenæum*.—I am, &c.

JOSEPH CAUVIN,

Ph. D. of the University of Göttingen.

6, Albert-street, Lower Grosvenor-place,

July 1, 1845.

On the Gigantic Bird of Egypt.—July 2.—Will you do me the favour to insert, in answer to Mr. Strickland's remarks on a paper, read at the Zoological Section of the British Association, which appeared in your last number [p. 644], that as far as can be ascertained, from the pictures in the tombs of Thebes and the pictures of Heracleum and Pompeii, there is reason to believe that neither the Egyptians nor Greeks were acquainted with perspective; and that if they had any knowledge of that branch of the science of optics, they (very justly) considered it incompatible with sculpture? Nevertheless, there were certain conventional laws observed in the execution of basso rilievo, by which the relative size of objects was intimated. Thus, for instance, it might be said, from what is sculptured on the rock at Kalabash (of which Egyptian basso rilievo there is a cast, on the left hand on entering the upper chamber of Egyptian antiquities, British Museum), that, in the time of Pharaoh Ramses II., there existed in that part of the continent of Africa inhabited by the black races, a quadruped taller than man, with an extremely long neck, spotted skin, and cloven hoof.

The next point that occurs in Mr. Strickland's remarks relates to the colossal foot; which, as he supposes, is the foot of a prince or hero whose dimensions, with respect to the other figures in the same rilievo, would be gigantic. The answer to this remark is, that, in accordance with another conventional law observed in the language of sculpture (for in that light, rather than as works of Art, should the

more ancient sculptures be considered), it was usual to amplify the person of the prince or hero, by which was meant to be conveyed the same idea that is expressed in the sentence, "There were giants in the earth in those days;" not that they were taller or stouter than other men, but that they were persons of superior rank or intelligence, of greater influence among their fellow-men, or, as it is expressed, "men of renown."

With respect to the genus or species of the bird in the Egyptian sculpture, or whether it bear any relation to the fossil remains, or to the bones of New Zealand, or to neither, I yield entirely to the judgment of Mr. Strickland; only do I contend for the bird being as much higher than a man as it is represented to be in the original document, of which the drawing exhibited at the Section is a faithful copy.—I remain, &c.

JOSEPH BONONI.

Statistics of Lunacy.—A return has just been presented to Parliament of the number of pauper lunatics, including under that term "all persons who are idiot, lunatic, or of unsound mind," with elaborate details of their distribution throughout the Kingdom, cost of maintenance, &c. It appears that the number of pauper lunatics in England amounted at the close of the past year to 14,153:—7,271 were lunatic paupers, of whom 3,181 were males, 4,090 were females, and 6,882 were idiots, of whom 3,271 were males and 3,611 were females. In England, 3,574 lunatics and idiots were maintained in county lunatic asylums; 2,559, in licensed houses; 4,080 in union workhouses, and 3,940 with their friends or elsewhere. The ages were as follows: 6 under 5 years; 40 under 10; 818 under 20; 2,828 under 30; 3,117 under 40; 3,046 under 50; 2,272 under 60; 1,430 under 70; and 596 upwards of 70; 3,544 were dangerous; and 2,390 were of nasty and filthy habits. The average cost of their maintenance was 7s. 3½d. per week in county asylums; 8s. 8½d. per week in licensed houses, and 2s. 7d. per week elsewhere. In Wales, there were 379 lunatics, and 820 idiots, of whom 37 are maintained in lunatic asylums; 55 in licensed houses; 91 in union workhouses; and 1,016 by their friends. The average cost of their maintenance is 7s. 9½d. in county lunatic asylums, 8s. 4½d. in licensed houses, and 2s. 3½d. elsewhere. Thus the total of the 589 unions in England and Wales, gives:—7,650 lunatics, and 7,702 idiots, together 15,352, of whom 3,611 are maintained in county lunatic asylums, 2,614 in licensed houses; 4,171 in union workhouses, and 4,956 with their friends.

The Latin Hexameter Machine.—Observing a notice of Clark's Hexameter Machine in your last number, I beg leave to forward you the following method of mechanical verse-making, by which it will be seen that the manufacture of Latin hexameters and pentameters artificially is nothing new. This method I first described at large in an old work on Arithmetic, the Preface to the twelfth edition of which bears the date of 1712. At page 174, it says, "I shall here mention a small treatise, entitled 'Artificial Verifying, shewing any one, though of ordinary Capacity, that can read and write, though he understandeth not a word of Latin, how to make Thousands of Hexameter and Pentameter Verses, which will be good Latin, true Verse, and perfect Sense.' The writer might have said 'hundreds of thousands' with perfect truth, for the table of hexameters will produce 25,827,163, and the tables of pentameters 1,221,736 verses, each of which will differ from its predecessors. But limiting the number to such as may be easily produced without the permutation of places, the tables will form 531,441 hexameters, and 59,049 pentameters, or together 590,490 verses, all of which will be of good Latin, metre, and sense; but, like those produced by Clarke's machine, unconnected with each other. By extending the tables by the addition of a few squares horizontally, they would produce more verses than has been written since the Creation. I shall now transcribe the method of 'artificial verifying' from the book before alluded to.—I am, &c.

AROLD JAMES COOLEY.

[It is not necessary to give the proof. No one doubts the facility with which such verses may be constructed, with or without a machine; but it is curious to see an old and forgotten speculation thus brought forward as a novelty.]

Eureka.—Permit me, as the constructor of the 'Eureka, or Machine for composing Hexameter Latin Verses,' to make a few observations on its general principles, in reference to Dr. Nuttall's remarks, in your last week's paper. The machine is neither more nor less than a practical illustration of the law of evolution. The process of composition is not by words already formed, but from separate letters. This fact is perfectly obvious, although some spectators may probably have mistaken the effect for the cause—the result for the principle—which is that of kaleidoscopic evolution; and as an illustration of this principle it is that the machine is interesting, a principle affording a far greater

scope of extension than has hitherto been attempted. The machine contains letters in alphabetical arrangement. Out of these, through the medium of numbers, rendered tangible by being expressed by indentures on wheelwork, the instrument selects such as are requisite to form the verse conceived; the components of words suited to form hexameters being alone previously calculated, the harmonious combination of which will be found to be practically interminable.—Yours, &c.

July 2, 1845.

J. CLARK.

Storms.—Prof. Loomes, of New York, states, in a letter to Lieut-Col. Sabine, as one of the results from the system of meteorological observations now established all over the United States, that it has been ascertained that "On the morning of February 3, 1842, rain was falling throughout nearly every portion of the United States, from an unknown distance in the Atlantic to far beyond the Mississippi, and from the Gulf of Mexico northward to an unknown distance beyond Lake Superior. The area upon which rain is ascertained to have been simultaneously falling was more than 1400 miles in a north and south direction."

Queen Mary.—At the conclusion of your very elaborate and impartial review of Prince Labanoff's collection of Queen Mary's Letters, you remark, "Since we began, a translation of some of the Letters has been published by Mr. Turnbull; but it would have been desirable to have given more time for a careful selection of documents, for he seems to have taken them almost at random. His great object is to show that Mary was a martyr to the Catholic faith." On this, permit me to observe, that if you will have the kindness to refer to the first paragraph of my few introductory notes, you will perceive that I state that the selection of the Letters did not rest with myself, and that I am responsible solely for the translations, introduction, and notes. This is, comparatively speaking, of little moment; but, as you at all times desire to be accurate (even in trifles), I have taken the liberty of directing your attention to it. With respect to your observation, that my "great object is to show that Mary was a martyr to the Catholic faith," I may mention, as the pen is in my hand, that I am not aware that such was my special intention in throwing together my hasty *notanda*. But such unquestionably has long been my opinion, without reference to my theological bias, but solely in considering the great features of British history during the sixteenth century. My opinions, however, are of no value or weight.—I am, &c.

Edinburgh, June 1845.

WILLIAM TURNBULL.

Singular Discovery.—On the 26th ult. as some labourers were employed digging in White Conduit-fields, Islington, for the purpose of forming a new sewer, they discovered at the depth of about thirty feet below the surface, some remains, evidently of Roman construction. The first discovery was made by one of the men who had been ineffectually endeavouring to remove some hard substance. Finding all his efforts fruitless, he enlisted the aid of a fellow-workman, but notwithstanding the additional assistance the obstruction could not be dislodged. The attention of the surveyor was then called to the subject, who after some consideration directed a trench to be formed around the object, with a view to undermining it; this after a little delay was effected to some extent, and presented to their view a massive stone, measuring in circumference about forty feet. Finding that no incision could be made underneath, they again directed their exertions against the top, which, from certain marks it bore, induced them to suppose might be removed. This proved to be correct, as, after considerable exertions, it was displaced and disclosed a kind of chamber, measuring eight feet in width by ten feet in length, and five feet in depth, the sides of which were engraved with antique figures. Upon a minute examination the cavity was found to contain another block of stone, hewn out somewhat in the form of a coffin, as also a large quantity of coins, bearing date the year 110, (which was the only inscription that could then be traced,) and several war instruments of a superior construction, many parts being of gold. From the fact of bones having been discovered in the supposed coffin, it is considered that some person of distinction has been entombed in this spot, together with all his worldly appurtenances, which was a custom observed by persons moving in affluence amongst the ancients.—*Times*.

A Skeleton found in Scaleby Moss.—On the 25th ult., a man, named Hogg, was engaged in "casting" peats in Scaleby Moss, when he found, about eight or nine feet below the surface, the remains of a human body, firmly imbedded in the lowest stratum of black peat. They were wrapped in what appeared to have been the skin of a deer, which was formed like a garment, and had evidently been worn, as the hair was rubbed off it in several places. It was composed of different pieces, united by seams, which

had been executed with considerable neatness; and it had been repaired in some places, though in a manner inferior to the original workmanship. The whole was bound together by thongs of strong tanned leather. As the person who discovered the remains supposed them to be those of some animal, unfortunately but little care was taken to preserve them. On the writer of this visiting the spot two days after the discovery, he saw several ribs, a bone of the arm, a shoulder-blade, and a part of the spine (the vertebrae of which still strongly adhered together by ligaments). There were also parts remaining of the bones of the pelvis, fore-arm, thigh, and legs; and indeed almost the whole skeleton, had the fragments been carefully preserved. It is remarkable, however, that the skull was wanting. A part of the intestines remained, which seemed to have undergone something like the process of tanning; they were tough, and had a parchment-like appearance. From the size and appearance of the bones, the writer infers that they must have been those of an adult, of a slender form and low stature; if a conjecture may be hazarded, he thinks it likely that the skeleton is that of a female. From the bones being buried so deep in the ground, and from their being wrapped in a skin, which in all probability was the clothing of the age in which the deceased lived, we are brought to the conclusion that the remains were those of an Ancient Briton, and that their preservation through so many centuries was effected by the well-known preservative properties of peat-moss. The Rev. John Hill, rector of Scaleby, has in his possession some of the best preserved bones and pieces of the skin.—*Carlisle Patriot*.

THE TIMES AND THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION.

We think it right, in justice to Mr. Murchison, to re-publish the following letter:—

To the Editor of The Times.

Sir,—Having read, for the first time, this morning, an article in your paper of the 28th of June, to which my attention was directed by a friend, wherein I am represented to have received 100l. from the British Association for my "Researches into London Clay," I beg to inform you that you are mistaken in supposing that the money in question was granted for any labours of my own. It was granted to enable that eminent naturalist, Professor Agassiz, of Neuchâtel, to complete a series of reports made by him to the British Association, by "a comparison of the numerous species of the fossil fishes of the London clay with those of the same age in the 'calcaire grossier' of Paris." And on this point, permit me to observe, that, in the preface to his great work, *Les Poissons Fossiles*, Professor Agassiz has announced, that, without the timely aid afforded to him by the British Association on previous occasions, he could not have executed that task which every cultivator of natural history has ardently desired to see realized since the period when it was shadowed out by the illustrious Cuvier.

As your observations on the pecuniary grant (to convey which to Professor Agassiz I am merely the agent) are accompanied by others, on the decline of influence, and the diminution of the resources, of the society, of which I have been a trustee since its foundation, I beg further to acquaint you, that the British Association possesses funded property to the amount of 5,500l. Three per Cent. Consols; that the number of its members exceeded the number at the preceding meeting at York by 250; and that the recent meeting, under Sir John Herschel, was more numerously attended than the first assembly on the Cam, in 1833, under the presidency of Prof. Sedgwick.—I am, Sir, &c.

R. I. MURCHISON.

16, Belgrave-square, July 2.

We had intended, at the close of our Report, to have offered a few words of comment on the annual onslaught in which the *Times* is accustomed to indulge, on Science and the Association,—but under circumstances, it appears to us better, though contrary to our custom, to publish at length the speech of the Dean of Westminster, when moving the vote of thanks to Mr. Murchison for the Lecture on the Geology of Russia, delivered on Monday Evening,—as, to some extent, anticipating the line of argument

which we must have used, and as such an argument comes most appropriately from within the body of the Association itself.

THE DEAN OF WESTMINSTER said, that it was not for him to attempt to eulogize the scientific merits of the address they had just heard. He should be followed by one better able, by deep acquaintance with the subject, to give utterance to such opinions. He might, however, be permitted to say, that it appeared to him that Mr. Murchison had, like the old soldier he described himself to be, taken a rapid military glance over this wide extent of country, and caught with singular felicity in great and leading features. But in another view, all this was no military achievement. He had not, with purposes, necessarily it might be, hostile, surveyed that distant land, to discover its weak places for assault, to see where fire and sword and desolation could most easily be carried into the recesses of its national life: he had gone as a stranger, but as a friend, to tell the Czar what were the riches of his vast dominions; to explain to the inhabitants of Russia how they could best turn to full account the natural blessings which a gracious Providence had stored around them. And this seemed to him (the Dean of Westminster) to be closely connected with one especial feature of this Association: nothing in it had been pleasanter to him, and he doubted not, to those around him, than the sight of so many foreigners from every nation, gathered at this friendly meeting; they seemed to be deputies from all the civilized world. And he was well convinced that there was great usefulness in this: the more the ties which bind society together are thus multiplied and interlaced the better. The more men come to understand one another, the harder it is to divide and to imbitter them; and this, on the smaller scale at home, as well as on the larger scale with foreigners and strangers, was the work of this Association. Its very character was, for this purpose, migratory, that it might be the means of bringing together the lovers of Science in all the different centres of our widely-scattered provincial life. In doing this, moreover, it achieved another good; for it thus tended to foster and nourish up many a scattered seed of philosophy which, but for its care, would certainly have perished. Many, who, from poverty, or want of acquaintance with the scientific, hardly dared to aspire to the cultivation of the science which they loved, were thus found out at their homes by somebody, had their tastes confirmed, their views enlarged, and their love of science fixed: as they heard the words and saw the sights which were now around them, and came to know the faces of these eminent philosophers, their hearts kindled within them, and throbbed with the secret consciousness that "I too am a lover and follower of Nature." And believing that these good results did follow from the existence of this Association, he (the Dean of Westminster) was ready to welcome it to his own neighbourhood, although he was not ignorant of the reproaches to which it had been subjected. He need not say that, if he believed those reproaches, it would receive no welcome from him. He, with all (as he trusted) whom he saw before him, would rather far be ignorant utterly of every scientific fact or principle, than have the simplicity of his faith in that which was dearer far than life itself, assailed or shaken. But he denied the truth of those reproaches; here, happily, they had not been put forward. He indeed must be a rash man who should dare to whisper, here, at Cambridge, that there was any hostility or opposition between Science and Religion. Here, where the mighty Newton walked, reasoned, and discovered; here where he "qui ingenio genus humanum superavit," yet bowed himself as a meek believer before the Lord his God: here at least such aspirations, we might trust, would not be heard. But vented they had been elsewhere; and they therefore deserved a passing word. Of those, then, who argued thus, if, indeed, they did so in a real and honest, though mistaken, fear that the truths of religion might suffer by these inquiries, he would speak with the utmost tenderness. Feelings such as these, where they did really exist, were so closely allied to all that was sacred, that they should receive no harsh or scornful word from him. But

whilst he was to deal fairly must content sensitive feelings to contradict would count faith. True to two voices; secret lurk revelation tremble very, and lest it should fore, would with such them to be treat tender assailed, and their victim most untrue tween Science contend, was Christianity; he needed, and that of militancy and philosopher Nature called boldly contend. The unbelief of conflict a deeper mind with the sn resolve all he only wish design; he him by Re disfigured vading law Cause. A admitted, t in one way, ment again all other l abused, as called him because, but far as he w follower of —just so fa be a belie Revelation Not the and Revel the unreal times, had ledge of N their own t of Revelat which had of Coperni it, let them laid down chel, pursu researches He who m to receive it that, in lik man with longing to arrangement earth bene really inter read in all laws, the n who plann

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"	300 feet down	55 "
"	300 feet down	52 "
"	water	46 "
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" " " of the water . 43·8		

'On the Baron de Bode's Insulated Compass,' by J. Y. Oliver.—The object was to insulate the compass from the action of the iron of the ship. The contrivance was this: a double glass bowl, the intermediate space being filled with mercury, was made to act as the bowl of the ordinary compass. It was hung in gimbals, and protected with lead. This rendered it very heavy and cumbersome.

Mr. DENT objected, that if this insulation would protect the needle from the action of the ship's iron, it would also shield it from the directive force of the earth, and therefore render it useless: but upon placing a poker near the compass, it was distinctly affected through the insulating mercury.

SATURDAY.

'On some Points in the Meteorology of Bombay,' by Col. SABINE.—It would be impossible, within reasonable space, to give an intelligible abstract of this communication, it being itself a statement of conclusions derived from multitudinous observations. This, however, is to be the less regretted, as the communication is to be printed in the next volume of the Reports. The following are a few particulars, selected as a sample:—In a communication to Section A. at York, it had been shown, by a comparison of the two-hourly observations at Toronto, that when the gaseous and vapour pressures had been distinguished in the total barometer pressure, their annual and diurnal variations exhibited a striking and instructive accordance with the annual and diurnal variations of the temperature. And when these were projected in curves the characteristic features were seen to be the same, consisting in each case of a single progression, having one ascending and one descending branch. The epochs of maxima and minima, and other circumstances, having so close a correspondence as to manifest an intimate connexion. The conclusions deduced from the facts at the York meeting, being compared with the results derived from the observations of M. Kreil at Prague, showed that the characteristic features of the periodical variations at Toronto were not peculiar to that locality, but might rather be considered as belonging to a station in the temperate zone, and in the midst of a continent. Soon after the York meeting, the publication of the Greenwich Magnetical and Meteorological Observations for 1842 enabled Colonel Sabine to add a postscript to the printed account of this comparison; showing the correspondence of the results at Greenwich with the periodical march of the phenomena at Prague and Toronto. From these premises it was inferred, that the normal state of the diurnal varieties of the pressures of air and vapour, and of the force of the wind in the temperate zone, might be that of a single progression, with one maximum and one minimum, the epochs of which should nearly coincide with those of the maximum and minimum of temperature. But a more complex state of the phenomena was to be looked for in particular localities, particularly where a juxtaposition should exist of columns of air resting on surfaces differently affected by heat (as those of sea and land), and possessing different retaining and radiating properties. Within the tropics, the well-known regular recurrence of land and sea breezes for many months made it obvious, that a double progression in the diurnal variations of the force of the wind must exist,—and rendered it probable that a double progression of the gaseous pressure would also be found. It was, therefore, with pleasure that he received from Dr. Buist a copy of the monthly abstracts of the two-hourly meteorological observations made at the observatory at Bombay, accompanied by a copy of his Meteorological Report for that year, giving a full account of the periodical variations of the wind; and in the explanations thereby afforded of the diurnal variations of the gaseous pressure at Bombay—which, although at first sight more complex than at the stations of Toronto, Prague or Greenwich, Col. Sabine conceives to be equally traceable to variations of the temperature. The Observatory at Bombay is situated in the Island of Colabah, in north latitude $18^{\circ} 54'$, and east longitude $72^{\circ} 50'$, at an

elevation of 35 feet above the level of the sea. Col. Sabine then described the tables as received, and the reductions to which he subjected them. The sun at Bombay is vertical twice in the year, viz. in the middle of May and towards the end of July. The rainy season sets in about the commencement of June (in 1843 on the 2nd of June), and terminates in August; but with heavy showers, of no long duration, continuing into September. During the rainy season, and in the month of May, which commonly precedes it, the sky is mostly covered with clouds, by which the heating of the earth by day and its cooling at night by radiation are impeded, and the range of the diurnal variation of the temperature lessened; and the strength of the land and sea breezes in those months is also comparatively feeble,—sometimes almost without alternation. For these reasons he has, besides the tables, collected into one view the means of the months of May, June, July and August, or the cloudy months, in order to contrast them with the months of November, December, January and February, when the sky is for the most part clear. These reductions being made, the diurnal variation of temperature is found to have a single progression, being a minimum at 18 hours (6 o'clock, A.M.), and a maximum at 2 hours; the average difference being $7^{\circ} 77'$ in the clear season, and $3^{\circ} 71'$ in the cloudy; the mean of the year being $5^{\circ} 7'$. The tension of the vapour also exhibits the general character of a single progression, increasing from a minimum at the coldest hour to a maximum about the warmest; with a slight irregularity at noon, requiring future confirmation. In the gaseous pressure, however, we find a double progression distinctly marked; one maximum occurring at 10 hours and another at 22 hours: one minimum at 4 hours, and another at 16 hours; and this double progression is found both in the cloudy and in the clear season, with only a slight difference in the hours of maxima and minima: the principal maximum in the cloudy season being at 20 hours instead of 22 hours, and the inferior minimum in the clear season being at 12 hours instead of 10 hours. The range of its diurnal variation, like that of the temperature, is more than twice as great in the clear as in the cloudy season. Col. Sabine then proceeded to describe the phenomena of the direction and force of the wind; and finds, from Dr. Buist's Report, that for 200 days in the year there is a regular alternation of land and sea breezes; and, therefore, there is a double progression of the daily variations of the force of the wind during these 200 days. The land breeze usually springs up about 10^h, or between 10^h and 14^h, blows strongest and freshest towards daybreak, and gradually declines until about 22^h, at which time it changes, after a lull of an hour or an hour and a half. The sea breeze then sets in—the ripple on the water indicating its commencement; being first observed close in shore, and only extending gradually out to sea. The sea breeze is freshest about 2^h, and progressively declines in the evening hours. Col. Sabine then proceeded with an explanation of the facts: and showed their coincidence with the principles,—including, as a necessary element, the separation of the aqueous and gaseous pressures. He then showed, that in the annual variations, the leading features are closely analogous to those exhibited at Toronto, Prague and Greenwich—viz. a correspondence of the maximum of vapour pressure and a minimum of gaseous pressure with the maximum of temperature, and of the minimum of vapour pressure and maximum of gaseous with the minimum of temperature; and a similar march of the three variations:—but the epochs or turning-points not in every case identical, yet having an obvious connexion. He then gave a tabular view of the monthly means for 1843 of the temperature, vapour pressure, gaseous pressure, barometer and humidity; and pointed out in detail their peculiarities and dependencies; and concluded by submitting the importance of either admitting or rejecting the propriety of separating the two pressures which unite in forming the total barometric pressure. The remarkable fact recently brought to light by Sir James Ross, as one of the results of his voyage, that the mean height of the barometer is nearly an inch less in the latitude of 75° S. than in the tropics, presses the consideration of this point upon our notice; for it is either explained by the diminution of the vapour constituent in the higher latitudes, which diminution

appears nearly to correspond to the decrease of barometric pressure observed by Sir James Ross,—or is a fact (not hitherto attempted to be explained, on any other hypothesis) of so startling a character as to call for immediate attention.

Col. STOKES said, that there was one point to which, in his opinion, Col. Sabine had not assigned due importance—viz. the influence of the monsoon. The disturbed atmospheric state during these extended from 52 to 120 days in the year, and gave rise to great fluctuations of the barometer and thermometer.—Prof. LLOYD urged the importance of separating the gaseous pressure from the pressure exercised by the more fluctuating constituent of the atmosphere, and congratulated Colonel Sabine on the advance he had already made in tracing the parts of the entire phenomena due to each; this he exemplified by pointing out various points of difference between the meteorology and the climate of St. Helena and of Dublin.—Prof. DOVE was of opinion that the separation of the gaseous pressure from that of the aqueous does not lead to such simple results as those which he obtained by calculating the observations made at other places. Hence the question might arise, whether this separation was generally applicable. He then showed, that the elasticity of vapour diffused in the atmosphere is so small in the interior of the continent of Asia, that the curve of the whole barometric pressure is of the same form as that found for Europe, when from the barometric pressure we subtract that of the aqueous vapour. By this means, the curves for all places assume the same form, showing a single maximum and a single minimum; and this as well with reference to the daily as annual variation. This leads us to a more precise definition of continental and sea climate; the former is one in which the diminution of pressure caused by the expansion of air by heat is greater than the increase of pressure produced by the evaporation of water; the latter in which the contrary takes place. The separating line, being that in which the compensation is exact, passes between St. Petersburg and Moscow. The true phenomena of a continental climate are not met with in America, because there in the summer months the quantity of vapour is so great as to produce an over-compensation.—Sir J. HERSCHEL spoke of the fact stated by Sir James Ross of the low mean state of the barometer in the southern seas, and concurred in the opinion, that the especial attention of meteorologists should be directed to it.

'On M. Kreil's Self-Registering Meteorological Instruments,' by Baron von SENTENBERG.—The self-registering instruments of M. Kreil register at intervals of 5' continually the state of the barometer, of the thermometer, and of the hygrometer. The instruments are placed at Prague and at Sentenberg, which is nearly due east of Prague, about 100 English miles distant. It is situated on the Adler, 1281 Paris feet above the level of the sea, in latitude $50^{\circ} 8' 8''$, and longitude east of Greenwich $14^{\circ} 56' 49''$; situated on lias and mica slate, and near higher grounds of granite, gneiss and old red sandstone, and considerable forests. Prague is in a more level country, with the river Moldau flowing through it in a breadth of about 200 fathoms: it is only 524 feet above the level of the sea, without much wood land in its neighbourhood; the surrounding hills being lias, sandstone, and argillaceous schist. The Baron then exhibited the dotted curves produced by the instruments, and the curves and mean curves and tables deduced from them; and showed their use, by comparing the curves of Sentenberg with those of Prague, in informing us at which the changes began to occur first; this was readily inferred from the coincidences of the curves after having arrived at maxima and minima;—and concluded by pointing out, as an exemplification of their utility, the curious relations at each place during some remarkable thunder-storms.

Sir J. HERSCHEL next laid before the Section the Report of the Magnetical and Meteorological Committee. As this Report was printed and circulated among the members before the commencement of the meeting, in order to facilitate the proceedings of the Magnetic Conference, Sir John did not think it necessary to occupy time by reading it at length; he, therefore, merely read the conclusion, which contained the request of the Committee that the necessary grant of money should be continued.

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One branch of the Report, however, had not been ready in time to be printed with the rest—viz.—

'On Atmospheric Waves,' by Mr. W. R. BIRT.—The author divided his Report into three parts. In the first he noticed the regular rise of the barometer every month above 30 inches; and the apparent regularity of the flowing of the waves producing the maxima and minima. In the second, the recurrence of the symmetrical wave observed in November, 1842, in November, 1843, and in October and November, 1844. And in the third he gave the latest results of the examination of the systems of waves traversing Europe from the 6th to the 11th of November, 1842; being a continuation of the Report presented at the last meeting. The Astronomer Royal having shown, in the volume of Magnetical and Meteorological Observations made at the Observatory, Greenwich, during 1841 and 1842, that in every month the barometer rose above 30 inches, Mr. Birt found the same results upon comparing the observations made at Toronto with those at Greenwich; so that, on both sides of the Atlantic, the barometer rises above 30 inches every month: and a closer comparison appears to indicate that the rise occurs *twice* every month. The author exhibited the barometric altitudes at several epochs, tabulated so as to show the force of these deductions; and, by tinted and coloured diagrams, he exhibited the connexion that existed between the force and direction of the wind and the transit of these waves. He also traced the consequences that should result in many varied respects on the supposition of such waves passing along, and showed that these were in strict harmony with the actually observed phenomena at Greenwich, Prague, Munich and Toronto: and, as the latest result of his researches on this new and curious branch of inquiry, he exhibited a tabular view of five waves—viz. two from Scilly to Longstone, one from South Bph to St. Catherine's Point, one from Glasgow to St. Catherine's and from Brussels to Geneva, and one from Dublin to Bordsny; in which he compares the epochs of transits of the anterior trough, the crest and the posterior troughs of these waves and their amplitudes, as to the number of miles traversed and times of traversing, from which he deduces a velocity of transit varying from 25 to 31 miles per hour: and in concluding his Report Mr. Birt remarked, that it is characteristic of waves that different systems pass onwards without destroying one another; each wave of each system pursues its own path although crossed by others; and it can be followed in all its individuality. In this inquiry three systems of waves have been detected, or at least three barometric maxima; these maxima have been found to move across the area in three different directions, having on each side a diminution of pressure. The progress of each of these maxima appears to have been independent of the others: thus, at the opening of the observations, the line of greatest diminution of pressure on the English area was from Glasgow to St. Catherine's Point; at a later period, the observations indicated the direction of maxima at right angles to this line, and that a line cutting this line of maxima transversely passed through Geneva and Brussels, nearly parallel to the former; it was in this direction the wave was considered to have been moving. The barometric phenomena in this direction progressed slowly. While these movements were proceeding over the area, the barometric differences between Scilly and Longstone increased; the latter station exhibited a much less pressure than the former. At length, a decided line of maximum pressure is traced from Dublin to Geneva, after which the barometric affections at the stations at Scilly and Longstone are reversed, Scilly being the lowest and Longstone the highest. We have, therefore, a cause simultaneously operating on the barometer with that which produced the movement from Glasgow to St. Catherine's Point and from Brussels to Geneva, but distinct as the phenomena progressed in different directions. During the period that these two distinct, but contemporaneous causes are in operation, producing certain barometric phenomena in certain directions, and from the last of which we should expect at certain stations—Scilly and Longstone, for instance—a rising barometer, we actually find it *falling* rapidly, but not without exhibiting the same phenomena that characterize this fall as resulting from a wave. A decided line of maxima is observed; and in the same line, at a subsequent

period, we find a line of minima. We can, therefore, as previously remarked, trace each of these distinct sets of barometric phenomena in their own peculiar directions. It is, however, the reduction of the observations to the level of the sea that enables us to do this: the rise and fall at any one station, as exhibited by curves (times being used as abscissæ) give the combined effects of the three systems; and unless they are separated by taking the distances of the stations into account, we are perplexed with the apparent irregularity of the atmospheric changes.

Sir J. HERSCHEL said it was a remarkable circumstance, that Mr. Birt had been able to trace so close a connexion between phenomena which had been observed at such distant places, and with considerable intervals of time. The subject promised to lead to important results.

'On the Results of the Magnetic and Meteorological Observations at Sir Thomas Brisbane's Observatory, at Makerstown, in the year 1842,' by J. A. BROWN.—The following are the points of chief importance in the paper. From a comparison of five months, in 1841, with the corresponding five months of 1842, the yearly movement of the north end of the declination magnet is about five minutes towards the east. The horizontal component of the earth's magnetic intensity increases, and the vertical component diminishes considerably in the year; the diminution of magnetic dip being about five minutes. A new method has been adopted in order to obtain the temperature corrections for the bifilar and balance magnet; it is described in the sixteenth volume of the Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. It was merely mentioned that very consistent results had been obtained by different methods of comparison of the usual observations for the positions and temperatures of the magnets. When the observations of the balance magnetometer are corrected by this method the diurnal range of the vertical intensity has been found, like that for the horizontal intensity and declination, to increase regularly from the winter months to the summer months. The annual period of the horizontal intensity as deduced from the corrected observations of the bifilar magnetometer for 1842, is striking; a minimum of intensity occurs before or about each equinox, and a maximum before or about each solstice. The observations at Toronto in Canada, in 1842, when corrected by the same method, indicate *exactly* the same periods. The monthly means for Makerstown and Toronto were projected in curves, which were exhibited; the two curves were almost identical, the increase of horizontal intensity being greatest in the end of the year at Makerstown. The corrected observations of the balance magnetometers confirm in some sense the results from the bifilar, inasmuch as they also show the same annual periods of maxima and minima for the vertical intensity. As a severe test of the accuracy of the instruments and the methods adopted, the results for the magnetic dip deduced from the true force magnetometers were compared, both as to diurnal and yearly change of dip, with the results obtained from the inclinometer, and they were found to agree. From the meteorological observations it was found that the range of the monthly means of the pressure of dry air, was nearly the same as for the moist air. The mean of the three-monthly maxima and minima of temperature for each quarter of the year, was found to differ only by a fractional part of a degree from the mean of all the daily maxima and minima for the same period. The mean of the monthly maxima and minima of atmospheric pressure is less than the mean pressure for the whole year. This, it is conceived, has been found to hold always true, at least for places within the latitudes 50° and 60° north; the reverse probably takes place in lower latitudes—it does so at Pekin; in 1841, the means of the monthly maxima and minima being in almost every month above the mean pressure. The curve of the relative humidity of the atmosphere for the year, deduced from the observations of the psychrometer, was shown to agree completely in its inflexions with the curve of the mean quantity of clouds covering the sky, this quantity being merely estimated.

The ASTRONOMER ROYAL said that he was not quite certain that he understood Mr. Brown's proposed method of eliminating the effect of temperature on the magnetic force; but if he did,

then he must protest against it, since the power of the needle itself, as well as the magnetic force of the earth, were affected by the changes of temperature, the effects of which he had eliminated. The Rev. Dr. LLOYD said it was found that it was absolutely necessary to subject the magnet artificially to considerable differences of temperature, in order to estimate the effect of temperature, otherwise the probable error was found to be much within the limits of the errors of observation.—Prof. FORBES dissented from these statements, and said that it was at his request Mr. Brown brought forward these results, which he considered to possess much value.

'On the Connexion between Magnetic Variation with certain peculiarities of the Earth's Structure,' by S. M. SAXBY.—Mr. Saxby was of opinion that it will be found on examining the direction of the various mountain ridges of the globe, that there is a remarkable angular coincidence between such line of direction, and the local curve of equal magnetic variation, the one crossing the other at angles of from 65° to 70°. This observation applies not only to extensive ridges of high land, such as the Alps, Carpathians, Andes, &c., but also to *submerged* mountains, the tops of which form *chains of islands*; and it is remarkable that in the Eastern archipelago, where we find extensive ranges of islands at right angles to each other, the coincidence alluded to is apparent, and it may be asserted that the known globe affords no instance in which a general line of mountain ridge deviates more than two or three degrees from the above-named angular coincidence. It might be interesting to notice the position of mineral veins in mountainous districts in connexion with the above remark. There is also reason to suspect that the tracks of hurricanes, typhoons, tornadoes, and excessive elementary disturbances, approximate to the curves of magnetic variation.

Prof. FORBES could not assent to the views proposed by Mr. Saxby, and said that the most ordinary acquaintance with the effects of mountain chains on the magnet would be sufficient to show their incorrectness.

'On the Strength of Stone Columns,' by Mr. E. HODGKINSON.—The columns were of different heights, varying from 1 inch to 40 inches; they were square uniform prisms, the sides of the bases of which were 1 inch and 1½ inch, and the crushing weight was applied in the direction of the strata. From the experiments on the two series of pillars it appears that there is a falling off in strength in all columns from the shortest to the longest; but that the diminution is so small, when the height of the column is not greater than about 12 times the side of its square, that the strength may be considered as uniform, the mean being 10,000 lb. per square inch, or upwards. From the experiments on the columns one inch square, it appears that when the height is 15 times the side of the square the strength is slightly reduced; when the height is 24 times the base, the falling off is from 138 to 96 nearly; when it is 30 times the base, the strength is reduced from 138 to 75; and when it is 40 times the base the strength is reduced to 52, or to little more than one-third. These numbers will be modified to some extent by the experiments in progress. In all columns shorter than 30 times the side of the square, fracture took place by one of the ends failing; showing the ends to be the weakest parts; and the increased weakness of the longer columns over that of the shorter ones seemed to arise from the former being deflected more than the latter, and therefore exposing a smaller part of the ends to the crushing force. The cause of failure is the tendency of rigid materials to form wedges with sharp ends, these wedges splitting the body up in a manner which is always pretty nearly the same; some attempts to explain this matter theoretically were made by Coulomb. As long columns always give way first at the ends—showing that part to be the weakest—we might economize the material by making the areas of the ends larger than that of the middle, increasing the strength from the middle both ways towards the ends. If the area of the ends be to the area in the middle as the strength of a short column is to that of a long one, we should have for a column whose height was 24 times the breadth, the area of the ends and middle as 13,760 to 9,596 nearly. This, however, would make the ends somewhat too strong; since

the weakness of long columns arises from their flexure, and increasing the ends would diminish that flexure. Another mode of increasing the strength of the ends would be that of preventing flexure by increasing the dimensions of the middle. From the experiments it would appear that the Grecian columns, which seldom had their lengths more than about 10 times the diameter, were nearly of the form capable of bearing the greatest weight when their shafts were uniform; and that columns tapering from the bottom to the top were only capable of bearing weights due to the smallest part of their section, though the larger end might serve to prevent lateral thrusts. This last remark applies, too, to the Egyptian columns, the strength of the column being only that of the smallest part of the section. From the two series of experiments, it appeared that the strength of a short column is nearly in proportion to the area of the section, though the strength of the larger one is somewhat less than in that proportion.

Prof. CHALLIS inquired whether Mr. Hodgkinson had found the columns to give way chiefly in the direction of the cleavages of the stone? Mr. Hodgkinson replied that he had; and that hence the same size and shape of stone cut out of the same block, required very different forces to crush them across the grain from what they did with it.—Prof. STEVELLY said, that it was one peculiarity of Mr. Hodgkinson's researches, that they opened up so many collateral objects of interest and wide fields of inquiry. It was easy to see that the present researches might become important to the geologist, by leading him to the source from which originated the splitting up of extended rocks into beds and strata, and the contortions of them; for example, to some volcanic matter forced up vertically in such a manner as to exercise a crushing force upon even distant masses.—Prof. WILLIS showed, by examples deduced from various styles of architecture, that the ancients must have been practically in possession of similar principles; and from several examples which he gave, it would appear that columns of a shape suited to these principles were again coming into use.

'An Improvement in the Method of taking Positive Talbotypes (Calotypes),' by Sir D. BREWSTER. In the method now in use the face of the negative Talbotype is placed directly upon the side of the paper which has been brushed over with a solution of nitrate, or ammonia-nitrate, of silver, and which is to receive the positive picture. In strong sunlight the picture is thus taken very quickly; but there is a roughness in the shades, owing to the formation of black specks, which destroys the softness of the picture, and in portraits gives a disagreeable harshness to the human face. In order to remove this defect, the author first interposed thin plates of glass, with their surfaces sometimes ground and sometimes polished; but, though the divergency or diffusion of the light, passing through the negative picture, produced great softness in the positive, yet the outlines were too indistinct, though the Talbotypes looked very well, when placed at a distance. He then tried the effect of interposing a sheet of writing paper, without the water-mark and of uniform texture. The result of this experiment fully answered his expectations. The diffusion of the light thus occasioned shaded off, as it were, all the sharp lines and points, and gave a high degree of softness to the picture. The effect was even improved by interposing two sheets of clean paper; and, with a very bright meridian sun, he found that three sheets may be used with advantage. A similar effect may be obtained, in a smaller degree, by placing the back of the negative upon the positive paper, so as to cause the light to traverse the thickness of the negative, and this may be combined with one or more sheets of clean paper. This, of course, will be appropriate only with portraits; and it has the advantage (sometimes required) of making the figure look another way. To those who see the experiments above described for the first time, the effect is almost magical; and when the negative is removed, we see only a blank sheet of white paper; and our surprise is very great when, upon lifting this sheet, we discover beneath it a perfect picture, which seems as it were to have passed through the opaque and impervious screen. Sir D. Brewster exhibited specimens of portraits produced in this manner, and also specimens produced by the transmission of light through two perfectly coincident negatives of dif-

ferent degrees of strength; together with specimens of positives, produced by placing the positive paper between two perfectly coincident negatives, and acted upon by light incident on both sides of the picture. Sir D. Brewster mentioned some unexpected theoretical results, which these experiments indicated, but which required further investigation.

SECTION B.—CHEMISTRY AND MINERALOGY.

SATURDAY.

'On a New Property of Gases,' by Prof. GRAHAM.—After explaining the law which regulated the diffusion of gases through porous bodies, and stating the fact, that the lighter gases diffused themselves much more speedily than the more dense ones,—that their diffusion was equal to the square of their densities,—he proceeded to relate his experiments on the passage of gases into a vacuum. To this passage the term Effusion has been applied. The velocity of air being 1, the velocity of oxygen was found to be '9500 by experiment, and by calculation '9487. Carbonic acid being much heavier than air, gave the number '812. Carburetted hydrogen gave '1322 as the velocity of its effusion. Hydrogen gave as the velocity of effusion 3.613 by experiment, which was very nearly the amount given by theory. The interference of friction, even of minute orifices, was then described, and shown to admit of easy correction. Some useful applications were mentioned; as in the manufacture of coal gas, where it is desirable to ascertain the quality, as well as the quantity of gas manufactured. As the gas will pass the orifice on its way to a vacuum the quicker the lighter it is, and the more slowly as it increases in density, and as the superior carburetted hydrogen is heaviest, it would be easy to construct an instrument to register this velocity, and thus mark at once the required quality and quantity of gas. It was also proposed that an instrument might be used in mines to detect the presence of light carburetted hydrogen (fire damp). The passage of gases under pressure through porous bodies was termed by Prof. Graham, Transpiration. The mode adopted in experiment was, to take a glass receiver, open at the top, which was closed with a plate of stucco. This was placed on an air pump, the air exhausted by the pump, and the velocity with which the air passed through the stucco being marked by the mercurial gauge of the pump. The transpiration of atmospheric air was found to be greater than that of oxygen. Carbonic acid is found to be more transpirable than oxygen—or even, under low pressure, than atmospheric air. The transpiration of hydrogen is one-third more rapid than that of oxygen. The applicability of this process of experimenting to the explanation of exosmose and endosmose action in the passage of fluids through porous bodies was pointed out.

Mr. BAIN made some observations to the effect, that Prof. Graham's researches went to explain many meteorological phenomena, but particularly the suspension in the atmosphere of masses of aqueous vapour, in the form of clouds.

'On Recent Experiments on the Gas Voltaic Battery,' by Prof. GROVE.—No previous description of the Gas Battery having been given before the Association, Prof. Grove entered into an explanation of the action of hydrogen gas upon spongy platina, and gave a description of the first gas battery constructed with platina wire sealed into glass tubes in pairs,—hydrogen being put into one tube, and oxygen into the other. An arrangement of this kind being connected with a voltmeter, it was found that exactly the same quantity of gases was eliminated in the tubes of that instrument as combined in the tubes of the battery. Experiments have been made with a view of ascertaining if other gases might be used in the battery, and it was discovered that a great variety of gases might be so used. Prof. Grove then pointed out how perfectly any eudiometric analyses might be carried on with the gas battery, provided some attention were paid to a few sources of error. A form of the instrument as hitherto constructed by Prof. Grove was described, for the purpose of avoiding the absorption of atmospheric air by the fluid in the cells of the battery. A more recent construction of the battery was next described, in which many of the imperfections of the former instruments were removed, and a combination of several pairs of gas tubes are connected in one compact body.

Another advantage arising from this battery is the really constant condition of it; once charged, it appears that the action will go on for years, requiring nothing more than occasionally, at long intervals, adding a little zinc to the acidulated solution in the cells, for the purpose of supplying the loss of hydrogen in the tubes. The results of long experiment have shown, that the most invariable action may be calculated on for years; and that, by this instrument, experiments requiring for a long period the constant flow of a galvanic current may be most effectually carried out. Some experiments on the combination of phosphorus and sulphur with oxygen in the battery were then named; and it was found, that any body capable of volatilization gave a galvanic action with oxygen in the other tube. Camphor, alcohol, ether, and other bodies proved the constancy of this effect. It was then stated, that in all cases it had been found that chemical action and voltaic action were convertible into each other.

'On the Action of Gases on the Prismatic Spectrum,' by Dr. MILLER.—Referring, in the first instance, to the experiments of Sir D. Brewster on the changes produced on the fixed lines of the prismatic spectrum by various absorptive media, Dr. Miller proceeded to explain his method of examining the subject. The light, being passed through a longitudinal slit in a plate of metal, was received on a prism of Munich glass; the spectrum thus formed was passed through the gaseous medium under examination, and the resulting effect observed by a telescope. It was found that the dark lines of the spectrum materially changed their positions as different colourless gases were used; and that, by subjecting the spectrum to the absorptive influences of chlorine, nitrous acid vapour, the vapours of iodine, bromine, &c., numerous dark, and some luminous, bands not previously observed, were brought into view. The spectra produced by coloured flames was also examined, and many curious conditions observed. Dr. Miller had sought to ascertain if any relation could be found between the chemical characters of the bodies under examination and their properties of exhibiting Fraunhofer's lines; but as yet no such relation could be detected.

'Recent Experiments on Ozone,' by Prof. SCHÖNBEIN.—Prof. Schönbein was first induced to undertake his researches from the obscurity which rested upon the phenomena of the odour produced during the galvanic decomposition of water, resembling the smell of an electrical machine, and during thunder storms. In pursuing these researches, the author was led to the discovery, that the smell was always developed at the positive pole; that it was capable of being preserved in closed bottles; that heat destroyed it, and that many of the metals had also the same power. Experiments were made with a view to discover some means of procuring ozone easily; and after the trial of a great many bodies, it was found that phosphorus was particularly suited for the purpose. If a piece of phosphorus is placed in a bottle of common air, when maintained in a moist state, it readily produces this peculiar principle, on which the electrical smell depends. Several experiments were shown, to illustrate the effects of ozone in bleaching litmus paper and paper coloured with indigo, or a solution of that substance. If powdered iron or silver are placed in vessels containing ozone, the smell is immediately removed, and the metals exhibit a kind of oxidation. Other bodies were named, as producing a similar result; and many chemical decompositions were found to arise from exposure to the action of this peculiar principle. Solution of iodide of potassium is rapidly decomposed, iodine being set free; this was shown by a mixture of this salt with starch, which, on being exposed to the action of ozone, turned blue by the formation of iodide of starch. Bromide of potassium was also decomposed by this principle, and bromine liberated. Salts of iron were shown to undergo the same changes. A number of organic bodies, both vegetable and animal, destroy the ozonous smell. If ozonized air be made to pass through a tube, and this tube gently heated, all the properties of ozone are destroyed. This was shown by experiment. By the inspiration of ozone, similar effects are produced on the lungs to those resulting from chlorine and bromine. A mouse was killed in five minutes, and the experimentalist himself was seriously affected by breathing an atmosphere charged

with this odour. By electrolysis, gold or platinum are necessary for the development of ozone. The electrical brush in all cases produces the same effects as those above described; all the decomposition can be produced, and the same smell is distinctly evident. In this case, as in the other, heat and some of the metals also destroy the odour. Endeavours have been made to procure ozone in an isolated state, but they have not been successful. Ozone, although at first supposed to be an elementary body, was afterwards considered as a compound of oxygen and hydrogen. The fact of heat destroying this peculiar odour at once, shows that this principle is produced from the elimination of an oxygen compound from the decomposition of water. This is quite in accordance with the views entertained by Marinine, who has pursued the investigation with great industry, and who has published a memoir, in which his views are luminously set forth. The author of this report is of opinion that ozone will turn out to be a compound isomeric with the binoxide of water. A theoretical view of the production of this body was then entered into. The ordinary action of phosphorus undergoing oxidation in the atmospheric air was explained, and the remarkable fact stated, that although phosphorus was luminous in moist air, it was not so in perfectly dry air. Ozone was now, therefore, although long regarded by Prof. Schönbein as an elementary body, be looked upon as, in all probability, a trioxide of hydrogen. Its bleaching properties are very remarkable, and it may possibly be of considerable practical utility.

Experiments on the Spheroidal State of Bodies, and its Application to Steam Boilers, and on the Freezing of Water in Red-hot Vessels, by Prof. BOUTIGNY.—Prof. Boutigny, who made his communication in the French language, first proceeded to show that a drop of water projected upon a red-hot plate does not touch it; but that a repulsive action is exerted between the plate and the fluid, which keeps the latter in a state of rapid vibration. At a white heat, this repulsion acts with the greatest energy, whilst it ceases, and the ordinary process of evaporation takes place at a brown-red heat. The temperature of the water whilst in the spheroidal state is found to be only 96°, and this temperature is maintained so long as the heat of the plate is kept up. To bring this water to the boiling point (to 212°), it is therefore necessary to cool the plate. These phenomena are explained by M. Boutigny on the supposition that the sphere of water has a perfect reflecting surface, and consequently that the heat of the incandescent plate is reflected back upon it; and some experiments have been made, which show that this is the case, the plate becoming visibly redder over those parts on which the vibrating globule played. Several experiments were made in proof of this necessary cooling to produce ebullition. The red-hot plate, with its spheroidal drop, was removed from the spirit-lamp, and after a minute or two, the water began to boil, and was rapidly dissipated in steam. Ammonia and ether were shown, although so exceedingly volatile, to act in the same manner; the ether, however, being decomposed whilst in the vibratory condition, in the same manner as it is by the action of platinum wire, forming a peculiar acid. Iodine put upon the heated plate became fluid, and revolved in the same manner as other fluids, no vapours escaping whilst the high temperature of the metal was maintained; but when allowed to cool to the point of dull redness, it was immediately dissipated in violet vapours. The nitrate of ammonia fused on the glowing hot plate, and vibrated with great energy; but on cooling the capsule, the salt entered into vivid combustion. The repulsive action was shown by plunging a lump of silver at a glowing red heat into a glass of water. As long as its bright redness was maintained, there was no ebullition; but as it slowly cooled, boiling took place. In this experiment, it appeared as if the glowing metal formed around itself an atmosphere; and the contiguous surfaces of the water appeared like a silvered plate. The application of the principles involved in these phenomena to the tempering of metals was then explained. If a metal to be tempered is in a highly incandescent state, the necessary hardening will not take place on plunging it into water. It is, therefore, necessary that a certain temperature should be observed. Experiments were made to show that the

repulsive power of the spheroidal fluid existed, not merely between it and the hot plate, but between it and other fluids. Ether and water thus repelled each other, and water rested on and rolled over turpentine. The bursting of steam-boilers came next under consideration; and it was shown that many serious explosions may be referred to the phenomena under consideration. In a great many cases, the explosions have occurred during the cooling of the boilers after the withdrawal of the fire. An experiment was shown in proof of the view entertained by M. Boutigny. A sphere of copper, fitted with a safety-valve, was heated, and a little water being put into it, it was securely corked up, and withdrawn from the lamp. As long as the metal remained red, everything was quiet; but upon cooling, the cork was blown out with explosive violence. The concluding experiment excited great interest. The production of ice in a vessel at a glowing red heat was a result so anomalous, that every one was desirous of witnessing the phenomenon for himself. It was beautifully performed by M. Boutigny, in the following manner:—A deep platinum capsule was brought to a glowing red heat, and at the same moment, liquid sulphurous acid, which had been preserved in the liquid state by a freezing mixture, and some water, were poured into the vessel. The rapid evaporation of the volatile sulphurous acid, which enters into ebullition at the freezing point, produced such an intense degree of cold, that a large lump of ice was immediately formed, and being thrown out of the red-hot vessel, handed round to the company in the Section.

Mr. G. RENNIE referred to some experiments of his own, in confirmation of M. Boutigny's views.

FRIDAY.

SECTION C.—GEOLOGY AND PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

'Report on the Microscopic Structure of Shells,' by W. B. CARPENTER, M.D.—This report formed the continuation of last year's [Athen. No. 885], on the minute structure of the skeletons of Bivalves and Echinodermata. Dr. Carpenter stated that he had lately examined a recent *Terebratula* preserved in spirits, and ascertained that the perforations in the shell, before described, were filled up in the living animal by membranous cæca, containing cells, forming, as he considered, a glandular apparatus, though its connexion he had not yet been able to trace. He then described the structure of those bivalve mollusks, in which the mantle is more or less closed as being generally less characteristic than that of the families already described, their texture being apparently more homogeneous; and the membranous residuum, left by the action of acid, being less distinct. Frequently, however, traces of a cellular origin were to be seen in shells whose general texture was most homogeneous; sometimes it was seen in the shell, and not in the decalcified membrane, and frequently in the membrane when no traces of it were visible in sections of the shell. Hence Dr. Carpenter felt himself justified in regarding all shells as originating in the secretory action of the cells forming the superficial layer of the mantle; these cells remaining persistent and separate in some cases, whilst in others they coalesced. The peculiar tenacity of the cellular membrane in *Pinna* and its allies was attributed to the presence of an intercellular horny matter, between the true cell-walls; the same substance being elsewhere thrown out upon the surface of the layer, as an epidermis or periostacum. Among the shells under consideration in the present report, those of the family *Myida* were particularly distinguished by their evident cellular structure; the genus *Pandora* formerly referred to as one of the most aberrant and exceptional in the structure of its shell, was now shown to be connected with the surrounding families by *Mya*, *Thracia*, *Anatina*, and other genera of *Myida*, whose characters were of an intermediate nature. In the class Echinodermata, Dr. Carpenter extended and confirmed the results he had before given respecting the minute structure of their skeletons, which preserve a remarkable conformity throughout the group, extending to the small calcareous plates met with in the *Holothuridae*. Dr. Carpenter had also ascertained that the same minute structure existed in the Nummulite with the small existing foraminifera described by Ehrenberg;

but that the supposed nummulites brought by Mr. Pratt from Bayonne presented several forms of structure entirely distinct from that of the true nummulite.—Mr. CHARLES WORTH thought that extreme caution should be used in the attempt to determine the limits of genera and species by the aid of the microscope. An experienced microscopic investigator, Mr. Nasmyth, considered the minute structure of the fossil ivory in Mr. Koch's collection of Mastodon bones, to indicate six or seven species, while Prof. Owen, taking external characters, came to the conclusion that all these remains were referable to the *Mastodon giganteus* of Cuvier.

'On the Agency of Land Snails in forming holes and trackways in Compact Limestone,' by Dr. BUCKLAND.—This notice was a continuation of one made at the Plymouth meeting [see *Athen.* No. 719], in which the author ascribed certain perforations discovered by him on the under side of ledges of limestone rock at Tenby, Boulogne, and Plymouth, to the agency of an acid secretion of land snails, which resorted to these perforations daily for shelter. The additional instances now described were discovered by Dr. Buckland in Cumberland during a visit made in 1842, in company with Mr. Hopkins; at Cannington Park in Somersetshire, by Mr. Baker; in the stringcourses of the Roman castle at Richborough, built of Kentish rag; in the roof of the cromlech at St. Nicholas, near Cardiff; in the rock work in Mr. Dillwyn's garden, brought from Gower; and in St. Mary's Abbey, at York. Dr. Buckland exhibited specimens of limestone rock from several localities, showing perforations occupied by snails, and grooves or furrows leading to the perforations, and he insisted that these were unlike those produced by any marine animal, or by atmospheric causes. The perforated rocks were stated to be only found in districts affording a rich vegetation, and were always met with immediately on passing from a slate region, or one entirely composed of limestone, into another covered with more luxuriant herbage. Dr. Buckland attached great importance to the perforations at Richborough Castle, which, he said, afforded a measure of the time necessary for such operations. The deepest holes he had seen in limestone rocks never exceeded two or three inches, and he considered it probable that they had occupied several thousand years in their formation; the holes were only found in the hardest limestone rocks, because in all others they would be obliterated by atmospheric action.

'On a Topographical and Geological Map of Mount Etna and adjacent Country from actual Survey,' by BARON W. S. DE WALTERSHAUSEN.—The author illustrated his remarks by Maps and diagrams of Mount Etna, exhibiting by different shades of colour the dates of streams of lava which had flowed from 215 different eruptions, and the exact position of all the minor craters, 750 in number, dotted over the region surrounding the principal elevation. The maps were on a scale of $\frac{1}{30000}$ of nature, and were still in manuscript, although now in the process of being engraved in Germany, accompanied by a detailed description of all the geological and topographical phenomena connected with it, illustrated by very numerous and elaborate drawings. This work is the result of above nine years' labour, chiefly on the spot. At one time Baron Waltershausen remained forty-two days in the neighbourhood of the summit, making his surveys and observing the changes of the principal crater. The map contains a representation of the dykes of the Val del Bove. Those which are of diorite manifestly diverge from a central point a long way to the eastward of the present cone, which point the author supposes to indicate the centres of the elevatory forces at the time of the dioritic formations. The oldest rock in Etna appears to be a whitish trachyte, which appears in the Val del Bove, and at one or two other points on the eastern side.

Sir H. DE LA BECHE stated that these maps had been laid down from trigonometrical survey, and were the most beautiful specimens of such work he had seen. He also alluded to the evidence of a crater of elevation entirely different from the small crater of eruption, and that the shifting of this principal crater was shown by the radiation of dykes from more than one point; these dykes being simply cracks filled with molten rock, forced up from beneath.—BARON VON BUCH remarked that two circumstances

were particularly worthy of notice—first, that the greater part of the lava did not flow from the principal crater, but from points as much as five miles distant; and secondly, that all the cracks formed during eruptions went upwards to the central crater.—Prof. J. FORBES observed that the section seen in the Val del Bove, exhibited most completely the mode of formation of the volcano, and afforded the best criterion for judging of the accuracy of the theory of volcanic elevation propounded by Von Buch. He pointed out the evidence of the progressive motion of the centre of elevation from ancient periods to the present time, a change taking place by steps and indicated by the position of the dykes, which gradually partake more and more of the mineral character of those connected with the present craters. He next called attention to the circumstance that the central crater was situated on one side of a great dome-shaped elevation, for the formation of which something more than the successive deposition of lava streams had been necessary. The idea that the principal mass of a volcano like Etna might be formed in this way had arisen from an erroneous estimate of the quantity of liquid matter erupted at any one time, of the manner in which it was spread out, the equality of its distribution, and the angle at which it could be consolidated. On the principle advocated by Mr. Lyell, that the greatest effect might be produced by small causes, multiplied indefinitely, it had been inferred that a mountain 10,000 feet high might be formed in a period proportionally longer than one of only 1,000 feet by the same means. In fact, that Etna might be formed by a long-continued series of eruptions such as produced the Monte Rossi. This Prof. Forbes considered quite impossible, for a reason pointed out by M. Elie de Beaumont, who in describing Mount Etna, had seized upon many of its leading features, and given an explanation of its structure, fully borne out by Baron Waltershausen's elaborate survey. These sections in the Val del Bove exhibited vast numbers of alternating strata of ancient lavas, separated by thin layers of ashes or slags, more compact and more evenly distributed than those of modern date, having similar angles of inclination.—Mr. HOPKINS remarked that there were three points of great importance to be considered: 1. The actual constitution of the great mass of Mount Etna, considered by M. de Beaumont a cone of elevation, and not of successive eruption; his argument being similar to that which geologists apply to ordinary strata, when they are found at an angle greater than that at which they could have been originally deposited by water. The approximate thickness of the beds of lava being the same as usual, they must have been brought into their inclined position by subsequent elevation. 2. The lines of contemporaneous dykes diverging from accurate centres; an arrangement which might have been inferred *a priori* from mechanical considerations. 3. The circumstance that there are distinct systems of these diverging fissures, showing that the general conditions of the mass were such, that after one system was formed, their nature was so modified by time, that the same process might again take place from another centre, without being materially disturbed by the former set of fissures. If there had at any time been two contemporaneous centres of mechanical force, such modification in their effects would have been produced as to distinguish them from the effects of forces acting consecutively in different periods of time. In concluding, Mr. Hopkins remarked that the same phenomena were presented on a small scale in the constitution of a volcanic mountain, which might be expected on a much larger, wherever the earth's crust had undergone elevation. The theory that this crust rested on one uniform fluid surface, was opposed by the fact of the shifting of the points of eruption, a circumstance only explained by supposing a degree of interruption in the connexion of the internal fluid.—Prof. J. D. FORBES described (at the request of Baron Waltershausen) an instance of a fissure produced by pressure from below, seen in a section of the Etnæan mass. In this case the beds of lava appearing horizontal, but in reality dipping towards the observer, were fissured by a vertical dyke sending out horizontal branches between the layers of lava, horizontal layers being sent off from a vertical dyke. In the Val del Bove one dyke was seen standing out from a vertical cliff, in which the upper surface

preserved its original form, and bore the trace of stream-marks.

SATURDAY.

'On the Coal Deposits of the Asturias,' by Mr. S. P. PRATT.—Mr. Pratt gave a general account of a section taken from the neighbourhood of Leon in a north-west direction to the coast passing through Oviedo. The strata rise from beneath tertiary deposits which cover the plains of Leon and Castelli, at an angle of 30°, which soon becomes nearly vertical, dipping north-by-west. They consist of numerous alternations of grit and shale with thin beds of limestone, and contain within about three miles of their rise a bed of good coal, nearly nine feet thick. Between this point and the summit of the Pass, a distance of five leagues, several extensive faults occur, by which the dip is more than once reversed, and several large mountain masses of limestone appear, underlying the grits, &c.; this limestone contains numerous fossils which indicate a period older than the mountain limestone, although several species are found intermixed, which can scarcely be separated from it. Hard grits and shales, highly inclined, succeed, and form the higher parts of the Pass, extending about a league beyond it to the north, when coal plants are found abundantly in the grits and shales; no coal, however, is seen until near Pola de Lena situate about three leagues from the top of the Pass; from hence following the road to Oviedo, in a distance of 10 miles, more than 70 seams of good workable coal are crossed near the upper part of the series a bed of conglomerate occurs, formed of rolled masses of grit, and limestone, and coal; another such deposit, probably exceeding 1,500 feet in thickness, appears near the lowest part of the series, in which the coal boulders are more abundant, varying from the size of an egg to a foot in diameter, and possess the same character with the coal of the associated beds; one good coal-seam occurs in the conglomerate, and two or three below it. The coal deposits are terminated by a narrow valley, beyond which the limestone rises from beneath them to a considerable elevation; a depression of the surface soon after occurs, forming a plain of cretaceous deposits of the Hippurite period, upon which the city of Oviedo stands, and which extends for 20 or 30 miles east and west. Beyond Oviedo to the north, the limestone again rises, and coal deposits appear between this point and the coast; in one of these the coal forms beds of from three to seven feet, interstratified with the limestone, which, with the shales that occur in it, contains an abundance of fossils, chiefly shells and corals, with but few traces of plants, whilst those before mentioned in the series south of Oviedo, were chiefly calamites, sigillarie, and other coal-plants. Another of these deposits, containing the same fossils, crops out on the seashore near the port of Aviles, which is to form the termination of the North of Spain Railroad to Madrid. It appears, therefore, that, besides extensive coal-beds corresponding with those of England and other countries, this province possesses a considerable deposit belonging to an earlier period, which was probably the source of the boulders occurring in the conglomerate of the upper series. Connected with the coal, and always below it, are several beds of hematite, one of which is extraordinary, the pure unmixed ore being 50 feet thick, and extending for a considerable distance; it appears from its mineralogical character to have been a mechanical or aqueous deposit.

Mr. MURCHISON remarked that the discovery of a coal-field as old as the Devonian system, although new, had not been improbable. Mr. Sedgwick and himself had discovered coal-plants in the Devonian rocks of the Rhenish provinces.—Sir H. DE LA BECKIE stated that the coal-plants were the earliest types of terrestrial vegetation yet known; in Devonshire they were found in that part of the culm, which was the equivalent of the millstone grit. Conglomerate containing boulders of coal in Pembrokeshire had been described by Mr. Logan, who referred to them in proof of the enormous period of time which must have elapsed between the deposition and consolidation of the beds of coal from which the conglomerates were formed, and the succeeding coal strata. In England hematite usually occurred in fissures and veins, but there was a bed of it in the Forest of Dean evidently deposited at the same time

with the other strata; and this might be expected from the analogy presented by the extensive deposits of impure carbonate of iron as "bog-ore" still in process of formation.—Mr. SEDGWICK observed that the conditions requisite for the formation of coal had occurred in every geological epoch subsequent to the great coal formation, and he therefore believed that it might have been also formed, and perhaps traced if it still existed in the very oldest rocks. He had examined the workings for hematite at Egremont, and ascertained that in this instance it was not a regularly bedded mass, but filled an ancient limestone cavern, the projecting portions of the roof being water-worn and polished; he thought it probable that much of the hematite in England had been deposited by aqueous agency in clefts and hollows, at the time of the new red sandstone, when the sea was charged to excess with per-oxide of iron.

'On the Denudation of South Wales and the adjacent Counties,' by A. C. RAMSAY.—The object of this communication was to show the great amount of certain denudations, and the approximate periods at which they had taken place. In South Wales the older rocks are in general terms conformable, indicating quiet deposition. After the deposition of the coal measures, violent disturbances took place, curving and contorting all the strata from the coal measures downwards. The conditions necessary for the continuance of the formation of coal were by these disturbances destroyed. The thickness of these rocks probably amounts to 25,000 or 30,000 feet; the Silurian rocks having a measured thickness of 10,000 feet, the old red sandstone from 4 to 7,000 feet; the mountain limestone varying from 50 to 2,000 feet; and the coal measures, as ascertained by Mr. Logan, attaining a thickness of from 10,000 to 15,000 feet. This total thickness is not supposed to exist at any one spot, but as each formation required the same time for its deposition as indicated by its maximum thickness, the argument as regards time is the same as if they had all been deposited at one place continuously. Most of these strata were therefore consolidated before the disturbances; and when their great mass and extent is considered, it will be obvious that no small forces could have produced such large effects. It was Mr. Ramsay's opinion that they could only be accounted for by lateral pressure such as would be produced by the "attempt of a solid crust to accommodate itself to a diminishing mass below in a refrigerating sphere." These curves were not produced by forces acting at detached points, the small flexures being but parts of much larger curves affecting the whole country. In illustration, Mr. Ramsay exhibited coloured sections, representing the outline of the country and dip of the rocks. From these sections Mr. Ramsay had obtained data for calculating the probable height of the land at various periods. Considering the magnesian conglomerate as the beach of the new red sandstone sea, the hills of South Wales and the adjacent counties must have attained various elevations, ranging from the level of the sea to at least 15,000 feet high. In a section from Glastonbury Tor to Bristol the mountain limestone and coal were entirely cut away by the new red sandstone and oolitic seas. In Glamorganshire and the country towards the Malverns, the coast had been denuded back to the extent in some places of nine miles, and a mass of strata removed sufficient to have formed a deposit of new red sandstone 500 feet thick, over an area of from 200 to 300 square miles. A country possessing mountains of such elevation must have enjoyed every variety of climate from the tropical to the arctic. The plants of the lias and oolites were supposed to be tropical, whilst the insects discovered by Mr. Brodie in the lias were mostly those belonging to a temperate climate, intermingled with some tropical forms. Mr. Forbes had mentioned a similar admixture taking place on the shores of the Egean at the present day, the insects of the mountains being washed by floods into the sea mingled with those requiring a higher temperature. And as there was evidence of rain having fallen in the period of the new red sandstone, in all probability it had continued in the lias. During all the oolitic period the land appears to have continued to rise towards the west, so that the oolitic strata were deposited in a constantly diminishing area; half were already above water, while the upper beds were depositing, and all the high land which

was not altered by the denudation by the sea at this period, the cretaceous and the sea washed again found chalk. Several new before the disturbance comparative position of considers the Wales of the remove the to a depth the highest tops of some drift, with feet. The present, my period, and Prof. Sedgwick by Mr. Ramsay changes which earth in the lapse of time vast masses destruction coal-reefs, sures from accession of gress of these ancient sea not dissipated the operation arising from changes, since of past time in it.—Dr. sures must tion since to undergo a face. Sir James to those of thousand feet supposed, at by the action the hills. places the as in those extensive force towards the accounting being no ad of the new were excee importance nacter of fos perpetual su regions below there had high, at the remove in respecting th at a somewhat the mechanism to determine gradual and paroxysmal character of denudation force, the gravity horizontal the strata; if w semi-fluid be Mr. Rogers, the crust, but su not necessary if the whole ously and the down more t arches thus c would be pr points, which that whene movement v resulting from denudation N

was not already destroyed was above water. Denudation by the sea did not therefore further progress at this period in what is now South Wales. During the cretaceous period a partial depression took place, and the sea may again have crossed the Severn, and washed against the old coasts; Mr. Ormerod has found chalk flints abundantly on the banks of the Severn near Chepstow. Again a rise took place before the deposition of the London clay, but the disturbances by which the chalk was elevated were comparatively of a tranquil nature. After the deposition of the London clay, Mr. Ramsay therefore considers there may still have been mountains in Wales of the great height already indicated, and to remove these the land must have again gone down to a depth at least corresponding to the height of the highest hills which now exist in Wales; on the tops of some of these, as on Moel Tryfan, there is still, with recent marine shells, at a height of 1,500 feet. The whole change from this condition to the present, must have been effected during the tertiary period, and part of it immediately prior to our own.

Prof. SEDGWICK reviewed the evidence afforded by Mr. Ramsay's communication of the successive changes which had taken place on the surface of the earth in the most remote periods; he alluded to the lapse of time required for the accumulation of such vast masses of shingle and sediment formed of the destruction of pre-existing rocks, for the growth of coral-reefs, and for the formation of the coal-measures from the accumulated vegetation of a long succession of peats and peat-bogs. During the progress of these physical changes, the population of the ancient sea had been repeatedly destroyed and renewed, not suddenly, but gradually and in accordance with the operation of laws. Nor did he feel any difficulty arising from the number and complexity of these changes, since they had been effected in an eternity of past time, with the hand of Omnipotence to work in it.—Dr. BUCKLAND remarked that the coal-measures must have suffered a great amount of denudation since the displacements which the strata had undergone were not visible on the present level surface. Sir James Hall had constructed similar sections to those of Mr. Ramsay's, demonstrating that many thousand feet of strata had been removed, as he supposed, at the time of the upheaval of the country, by the action of waves upon the broken summits of the hills. Dr. Buckland considered that in many places the denuded strata had not been so thick as in those where they still remain, because the most extensive formations were local, and thinned off towards their shores. His greatest difficulty was in accounting for the wreck of these formations, there being no adequate amount of detritus visible in any of the newer formations. In some strata pebbles were exceedingly rare. He did not think much importance could be attached to the climatal character of fossil insects; he had himself seen on the perpetual snow of Etna the insects of the warmer regions below: but if, as supposed by Mr. Ramsay, there had been in Wales mountains 15,000 feet high, at the period of the London clay, it might remove in some degree the objection to his theory respecting the existence of glaciers in that country at a somewhat later period.—Mr. HOPKINS discussed the mechanical causes of the phenomena of elevation, to determine whether these had resulted from a gradual and progressive force, or from reiterated paroxysmal action, requiring attention not only to the character of the elevation, but also the phenomena of denudation. With respect to the direction of the force, the greatest difficulty was in accounting for the horizontal thrust indicated by the contortions of the strata; if wave-like undulations were produced in a semi-fluid below the surface, as conjectured by Prof. Rogers, they might be communicated to the solid crust, but such a condition was dynamical, and would not necessarily produce any permanent results; but if the whole undulating area were elevated simultaneously and then subsided, certain portions would sink down more than others, and from the pressure of the arches thus constituted an unlimited horizontal force would be produced,—within, however, certain fixed points, which must exist. Mr. Phillips had ascertained that whenever a fault was inclined, the upward movement was always on the inclined side, a law resulting from the view just stated. The process of denudation Mr. Hopkins considered as either littoral,

or superficial—from the action of currents on the sea-bottom; it went on simultaneously with deposition, and would be more rapid after convulsions had exposed large broken surfaces to its action, a process not consistent with the preservation of delicate organic remains. So far as the removal of these immense masses of strata had resulted from littoral action, the process must have been slow, but unquestionably from this source, denudation, was derived the materials of all those strata which have been deposited by water.—Sir H. DE LA BECHE stated that the "ground-swell" was the most destructive form of sea-action on a coast; he described the appearance of gravelly beaches along the Mendips from Shepton Mallet to the Bristol Channel, reappearing in Glamorganshire, where the lias conglomerate was 70 feet thick, formed of the detritus of the subjacent rock; these beaches indicated the elevation of the country at that particular time. In South Wales the faults had been formed after the strata were contorted.—Mr. PHILLIPS observed that when a good general solution for any class of phenomena had been obtained from clear data, it gave the power of interpreting other similar circumstances. The original continuity of strata in many places where now absent, was sufficiently proved by the manner in which they appear at the surface, their dip, direction, &c. Some rocks were more continuous than others, particularly the limestone, which sometimes preserved the same aspect and thickness for 60 miles, but here thinned out in one direction. The observations of Mr. Ramsay respecting denudation might be extended along the Malverns and to North Wales and Ireland.

'On the Geology of New Zealand,' by Dr. Dieffenbach.—New Zealand forms a group of mountainous islands nearly as large as England and Wales, and its geology is rendered difficult by the primitive forests that fringe the coast, or, where these have been destroyed, by impenetrable thickets of the esculent fern. The fundamental rock is everywhere *clay slate*, frequently containing greenstone dykes, as at Port Nicholson, Queen Charlotte's Sound and Cloudy Bay; in the neighbourhood of the dykes the clay slate sometimes assumes the character of a *roofing slate*. On the banks of the rivers Eritonga and Waibo are terraces, or horizontal plateaux, 50 feet high, formed of boulders of the oldest trap-rocks, and similar terraces are seen on the sea coast round Cape Palliser, 50 or 60 feet above the sea. *Anthracite coal* crops out in the small harbour of Wangarua on the west coast of Middle Island, and there is a thin seam of anthracite in the hard gray sandstone on the east coast of the Northern Island. *Limestone* is described as occurring in the harbours of Kauria and Waingaroa on the west coast of the Northern Island; it is crystalline, and contains fossils of the genera *Pecten*, *Ostrea*, *Terebratula*, and *Spatangus*. Limestone is also found on the river Kaipara in the Bay of Islands, and *Copper pyrites* has been obtained from the great Barrier Island, where it forms veins in the clay slate. The coasts are in many places fringed with recent horizontal sedimentary deposits, consisting of loam, with fragments of wood and tree ferns, blades of the typha, &c.; and on the northern island the coast is often formed of volcanic conglomerate, containing magnetic iron sand near Cape Egmont, and turritellæ and oyster shells at the harbour of Parenga; near Tauranga, it is composed of decomposing tuff, containing lignite and shells of *Pectunculus*, *Natica*, *Pyralia* and *Ancillaria*. The small rocky islands of trachyte, lying off the coast of Northern Island, also bear marks of wave-action to the height of 100 feet above the present sea level. On the western coast of this island formations of sand are now accumulating, driven over the forests by the prevalent westerly gales. The interior of the Northern Island affords but a scanty vegetation, and the surface is everywhere covered with ordinary volcanic productions, derived from the lofty central group of mountains, some of which are extinct, others still active volcanoes; the lava appears to have been principally erupted from the base of the craters. The highest of these craters are Tongariro, 6,000 feet in elevation, according to Mr. Bidwell, and Mount Egmont about 9,000 feet, by Dr. Dieffenbach's thermometrical observations. There are also many lakes which appear to occupy ancient craters. The mountain chains of the Middle Island are supposed to consist of primary rocks; quart-

zose sandstone and greywacke are met with at the height of 3,000 feet; the lofty pyramidal summits are covered with snow, and deep narrow valleys separate the various ridges, and radiate from the central cones. Dr. Dieffenbach enumerates many localities at which he observed mineral springs, particularly between the Bay of Islands and Hokiang, where their temperature varied from 124° to 154°, and having an alkaline taste; the surface was covered with sublimations of sulphur. Along the delta of the Waikato, hot-springs rise from the escarpments of the hills, forming deposits like those of Iceland and St. Michael, Azores, containing 75 per cent. of silica. There is also a cold silicifying spring near Cape Maria. Dr. Dieffenbach has examined into all the traditions respecting the existence of the *Moa*, or great bird of New Zealand, and concludes that it has never been seen alive by any natives of New Zealand; the rivers in which its bones have been found flow between banks from 30 to 60 feet high, and as they are continually changing their course the remains of the moa may have been derived from tertiary fluvialite strata.

FRIDAY.

SECTION D.—ZOOLOGY AND BOTANY.

The Rev. L. JENYNS read a paper 'On the Turf of the Cambridgeshire Fens.'—This turf was not formed by sphagnum, as most peat, but from various species of aquatic plants which had been accumulated for a long period of years above the remains of forest trees which lie buried at the bottom of the moor. There are two distinct kinds of turf, the *upper* and the *lower*. The former is the more compact and heavy of the two. The latter consists entirely of the bark, wood and branches of the submerged trees. The turf is not now rapidly formed on account of the improved system of drainage. Formerly it was supposed to grow about twenty inches in sixteen years.

Dr. FALCONER said, that he had observed in Cashmere, at the bottoms of lakes, turf of a very similar kind to the lower bed just mentioned. It consisted of the remains of various aquatic plants, as *Chara*, *Potamogeton*, *Utricularia*, and *Nelumbium*. The inhabitants obtained it from the bottom of the lake by means of a rake, and used it as fuel.—Mr. BABBINGTON stated that the character of the Scotch and Irish bogs was different from that of the fens of Cambridgeshire. He had seen peat procured in Ireland from the bottoms of ponds in the same way as described by Dr. Falconer in Cashmere.—Mr. H. E. STRICKLAND had seen peat in Ireland converted into a substance as hard as jet, so that it might be used by the turner. The formation of this peat threw much light on the formation of coal. There could be no doubt that our coal beds were some of them formed in the manner of bogs, whilst others resulted from vegetable matter deposited at the bottom of the sea.—Mr. SELBY had seen peat quite solid and bright as amber.—The BISHOP of NORWICH stated, that the trees buried in the bogs of Lancashire exhibited marks of being burnt, and many of them had on them the strokes of the axe. Mr. DOWDEN pointed out the remarkable fact in Mr. Jenyns's observations that the light turf was undermost. The laws of nature were better observed in Ireland, where the heaviest turf was at the bottom.—Mr. MURCHISON remarked, that it was an extraordinary fact that there were no bogs in Russia, and yet throughout that country there was a great extent of mountain limestone as in Ireland, the most boggy country in the world. He supposed it was attributable to the character of the climate. In Ireland it was always raining, and moisture favoured the development of bogs.—Mr. R. BALL, of Dublin, had lately observed a number of trees which were blown down in 1839, covered over with grass, and the interspaces between the trees was filling up with vegetable matter, and in the course of time he believed they would form a bog.—Prof. OLDHAM, of Dublin, observed, that there was a difference in the mountain limestone of Ireland and Russia, inasmuch as the former was covered with beds of clay, and it was on these clay beds that the bogs were formed.

Sir R. SCHOMBURGK read a description of the Murichi, or Ita Palm, of Guiana. This tree grows from the Llanos of Cumana to the western tributaries of the Rio Negro and the mouth of the Amazon, or over an area of 550,000 square miles. It was called

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THE BRITISH MUTUAL LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY entertains proposals of any description involving the contingency of human life, and offers the following advantages to its members:—
A bonus annually (in shape of low premiums) equal to those of other offices rated every 3, 5, or 7 years, and
The prospect of a larger estate than any possibly be obtained in any other office, in a particularly beneficial mode adopted in the distribution of the surplus.
Prospectuses and every other information may be had on application at the Office, 17, New Bridge-street, Blackfriars.

Specimen of Tables:—

Age.	Annual Premium for 100£.	Age.	Annual Premium for 100£.	Age.	Annual Premium for 100£.
30	£1 15 8	40	£2 14 9	60	£6 6 7

CHARLES JAMES THICKE, Resident Secretary.
17, New Bridge-street, Blackfriars.

NORTH BRITISH LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY, Limited. established 1809. Protecting Capital, 1,000,000£, fully subscribed.

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This Institution is incorporated by Royal Charter, and is so constituted as to afford the benefits of Life Insurance in their full extent to Policy-holders, combined with perfect security in a fully subscribed Capital of One Million Sterling, besides an accumulated Premium Fund, exceeding £2,000,000, and a Revenue, Eighty per cent., or four-fifths of the total profits of the Company, are apportioned divided among the Assured.
At the investigation held on the 31st of December, 1845, a Bonus of 10 lb. per cent. on the sums assured, was declared for every Annual Premium paid during the septennial period. Thus on a Policy for 5000£, which had been in force upwards of six years, the Assured consequently seven Annual Premiums had been paid, the Bonus declared was 325£.
A Prospectus, containing Tables of Premiums, with the names of the President, Vice-Presidents, Directors, and Managers, and of all responsible PARTNERS, may be obtained of Messrs. B. & M. Boyd, Resident Members of the Board, 4, New Bank Buildings, or of the Actuary, 10, Pall Mall East.
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SUN LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY. LONDON.

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MANAGERS.
Charles Henry Liddell, Esq., Actuary.
The Managers beg to inform the Public that the Holders of Policies effected with this Society are entitled to participate in the profits according to the Conditions contained in their Pamphlets of Rates, which may be obtained at the Office, Threadneedle-street, or of any of the Agents of the Society.
The Premiums required by this Office on Young Lives are lower than those of most of the Old Established Offices.
A Bonus was declared in January, 1844, to the Policy Holders entitled to participate in the Profits at Midsummer, 1843, and the Additions then made to the Policies were on an average of the amount of the Policy for each year on the sum insured, from the period when the Policy Holders became entitled to participate in the Profits of the Society.
Policies effected before Midsummer, 1846, will be entitled to participate in the Profits of the Society at the next division.

THE MANCHESTER FIRE AND LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY. Established March, 1824.

Office, 39, King-street, Manchester.
Directors and Officers.
THOMAS MARLAND, Esq., Chairman.
JAMES WOOD, Esq., Deputy Chairman.
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Sir Benjamin Heywood, Bart. & Co.
FIRE DEPARTMENT.
NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN, that all Fire Policies due at MIDSUMMER must be renewed within fifteen days from that date, or they become void and of no effect.
The following Example of the Returns now payable on Fire Policies will best exhibit the advantages to be obtained by insuring with this Company.

No. of Policies.	Name of the Assured.	Term of the Policy.	Money Returned.
4655	Ormond & Co.	3 years	£5 s. d.
2814	Callender & Co.	3 years	50 4 6
4710	J. & J. Lees	5 years	29 12 6
4710	J. & J. Lees	5 years	29 12 6
4673	Rev. W. H. Bateson, M.A.	2 years	8 16 0
4673	T. Houldsworth, Esq.	3 years	41 15 1
4619	W. Lowe, Esq.	3 years	31 10 0
4704	John Darbyshire	4 years	15 16 8
4610	Robley & Son	5 years	41 12 6
4610	R. Ogden, Esq.	5 years	14 15 8
4632	Northern Banking Company	5 years	35 5 11

LIFE DEPARTMENT.

In 1830, a Bonus was declared of 31 per cent. on the Premiums received on all Policies of four years' duration; and the next Division of Profits will be in 1849.
Agents are appointed in the principal towns and places, and the Directors will be happy to receive applications for new Agents.
Persons desiring Premium and all other particulars, please to apply to any of the Company's Agents.
HERBERT SPRING, Secretary.
Note.—At the Annual General Court of Proprietors, holden on the 11th of June, 1846, a dividend of interest of 31 per cent. was declared on the Capital Stock of the Company for the past year, payable on and after the 1st October next.

UNION ASSURANCE OFFICE, FIRE, LIFE, ANNUITIES. Cornhill, and Baker-street, London; College-green, Dublin; and Esplanade, Hamburg.

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN, THAT A BONUS for the present year, of Two Pounds Ten Shillings per share, was this day declared, and that the same will be paid to the Proprietors, with their usual half-yearly dividend of Six Pounds per share per annum, at the Office in Cornhill, on Tuesday, the 1st day of July, 1846, or on any day between the hours of 11 and 2. The Property Tax has been paid.

THE LIFE DEPARTMENT of this Society embraces all the important benefits of a Participation in the Profits every Seven Years, with the perfect security of large Invested Funds, accumulated during the long period of more than a Century and a Quarter, and possessing powers which were granted by an special Act of Parliament in the reign of King George the Third. By another Table of Rates lately published, a considerable diminution will be found in the Premiums usually charged: to this Class profits do not attach. The deduction of Premium applies also to Insurances for One and Seven Years; and all Life Premiums can be paid Half-yearly or Quarterly, if more convenient.

Examples of the Additions to Life Policies in Great Britain.
Age of the Insured 25 Sum Insured £2500 With Bonus £3105
" " 40 " " 2000 " " 2165
" " 61 " " 1100 " " 1285

FIRE INSURANCE effected upon every description of Property, including Rent, Six years' premium and duty are charged for an insurance for seven years, and Policies should be renewed within 15 days after each Quarter Day.
MAY 30, 1845.
THOMAS LEWIS, Secretary.

UNIVERSAL LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY, 1, KING WILLIAM STREET, LONDON.

Director.—Sir Henry Willcock, K.L.S., Chairman.
John Stewart, Esq., M.P., Deputy Chairman.
Major-Gen. Sir Rd. Armstrong, William Kilburn, Esq.
G.B. K.C.T. & S. Francis Macnaghten, Esq.
John Bagshaw, Esq. Charles Otway Mayne, Esq.
Augustus Bosanquet, Esq. Robert Saunders, Esq.
James Duncan Thomson, Esq.
Ellis Walkin Quiliffe, Esq. Capt. Samuel Thornton, R.N.
Ralph Currie, Esq., M.P.
Solicitor.—William H. Cottrell, Esq.
Physician.—George Burrows, M.D.

The principle adopted by the Universal Life Assurance Society of an annual valuation of assets and liabilities, and a division of three-fourths of the profits among the assured, is admitted to offer great advantages; especially to those parties who may wish to appropriate their proportion of profit to the reduction of future premiums.

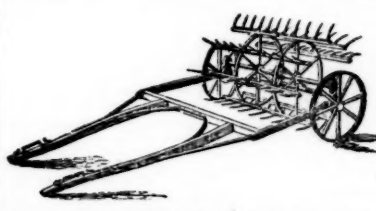
The following table will show the result of the last division of profits, as declared on the 5th of May, 1844, to all persons who had on that day paid six annual premiums:—

Age when Policy was issued.	Date of Policy.	Sum Assured.	Original Premium.	Reduced Annual Premium (for the current year).
20	On or before 5th of May, 1839.	£1,000	£19 0 8	£9 13 4
30	" " " " " "	1,000	24 8 4	12 4 2
40	" " " " " "	1,000	31 10 0	15 15 0
50	" " " " " "	1,000	42 15 0	21 7 6
60	" " " " " "	1,000	53 3 0	28 3 0

DAVID JONES, Actuary.

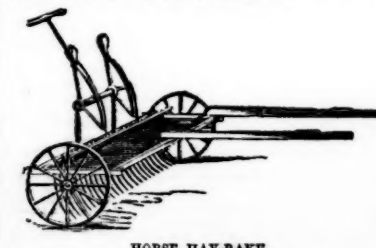
EMPERORS CIGARS.—Made by Cabana.

These Cigars are of superb quality and delicious flavour, the tobacco of these rare and choice Cigars combines rich flavour with perfect mildness. Imported and sold only by S. BARRACLOUGH, 46, Ludgate-hill, and 70, Cheapside.
S. B. respectfully cautions Noblemen and Gentlemen against bad imitations of these Cigars. The only Genuine Emperor's Cigars, made by Cabana, are sold at 46, Ludgate-hill, and 70, Cheapside, and cannot be had genuine at any other house in England. An original bundle sent as sample on the receipt of a Post-office order for 12s. 6d.



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